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THE GRIP-FAST HISTORY BOOKS
BOOK V



General Gordon at Khartum

THE GRIP-FAST HISTORY BOOKS

BOOK V

UNITED BRITAIN
POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC-HISTORY FROM
JAMES I TO THE PRESENT DAY

*WITH QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES, LIST OF
HISTORICAL STORIES, ETC.*

BY
SUSAN CUNNINGTON M.A.(CANTAB.)
AUTHOR OF "GEORGIAN ENGLAND," "THE WORLD IN ARMS," ETC

*WITH FRONTISPIECE IN COLOUR AND
33 ILLUSTRATIONS IN BLACK AND WHITE*

LONGMANS, GREEN AND CO.
39 PATERNOSTER ROW, LONDON, E.C.4
NEW YORK, TORONTO
BOMBAY, CALCUTTA AND MADRAS

1925

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PREFACE

TO THE BOYS AND GIRLS WHO READ THIS BOOK

BOOK V of the series of "Grip-Fast" Histories is written to show you something more of the Britain of the past, out of which has grown the Britain of to-day.

Since every one either helps or hinders the progress of justice and happiness, according to whether he is mean or generous, selfish or diligent, ignorant or intelligent, a knowledge of history is a kind of mirror, in which may be seen the choice made by people who lived before us, and the evil or good that came of it.

There are still many interesting things untold in these books which you will enjoy finding for yourselves, in books and pictures, museums and journeys. Almost every town and village, river and highway, has connected with it some historical event or some great name. It is a good plan to follow up any one of these little tributaries and get to know how it joins on to the great stream of our national history.

After you have read through this book it would be an interesting exercise to find in it the historical events referred to in the two verses of the Empire Hymn at the end.

THE AUTHOR.

STORRINGTON, SUSSEX,
August, 1925.

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THE GRIP-FAST HISTORY BOOKS

CHAPTER I

THE REIGN OF JAMES VI. OF SCOTLAND AND I. OF ENGLAND

Summary. THE STEWART MONARCHY. JAMES I.

ENGLAND		SCOTLAND
James VI. of Scotland, son of Mary Queen of Scots, became King of England as James I.	1603	
James I. held the Hampton Court Conference to discuss the differences between Episcopalians and Puritans. This led to the making of the Authorised Version of the Bible.	1604	James forbade the Scots Parliament to assemble, and imprisoned the Presbyterian ministers who preached against bishops.
A conspiracy known as the Gunpowder Plot was discovered; the leaders were executed and harsh laws passed against Catholics.	1605	
James I. dissolved Parliament because it disapproved of his ways of raising money.	1610	Harsh persecution of Catholics began and lasted for thirteen years.
James I. gave lands of the Irish to English and Scottish settlers; this was the Plantation of Ulster.	1611	

ENGLAND		SCOTLAND
The Princess Elizabeth, daughter of James I., was married to Frederick, the Elector Palatine.	1613	
	1617	James went to Scotland to try to establish Episcopal Church government.
Sir Walter Raleigh was released from the Tower on his promise to reveal a gold mine in Guiana. He failed, and on his return was executed on the old charge of conspiracy for Arabella Stewart.	1618	
A party of Puritans emigrated to escape persecution and, sailing in the <i>Mayflower</i> , these "Pilgrim Fathers" founded New England.	1620	
Francis Bacon, Earl Verulam, was impeached for bribery.	1621	
James I. died.	1625	James commanded the persecution of Scottish Catholics to cease.

THE HOUSE OF STEWART.

James IV. of Scotland *m.* Margaret, sister of Henry VIII.

James V. of Scotland *m.* Mary of Guise.

Mary Stewart *m.* Henry, Earl Darnley.

James VI. of Scotland *m.* Anne of Denmark.

The New Monarch.—Though Queen Elizabeth had always refused to acknowledge Mary of Scotland or her son James VI. as her heirs, at her death James VI. was declared King of England as **James I.** This was brought about chiefly by the powerful minister **Robert Cecil**, a younger son of the great Lord

Burghley ; and as James was a direct descendant of Henry VII. by the marriage of his elder daughter Margaret with James IV. of Scotland, his claim was stronger than that of Arabella Stewart or any other descendant of Henry VII. So the English people, though divided in the most important matter of religion, united in welcoming the new sovereign.

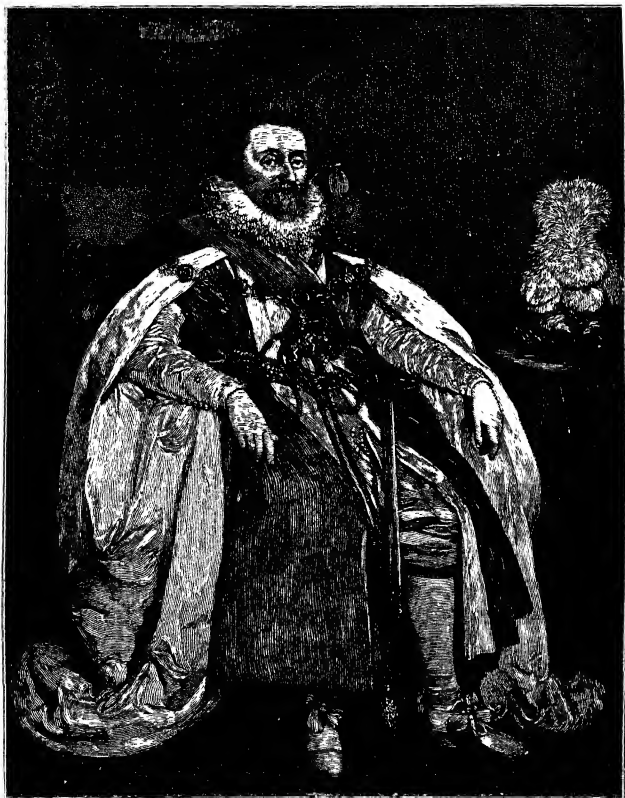
Each of the three chief religious bodies—the Catholics, the Puritans, and the Anglicans—hoped for greater freedom, or at least less persecution. The Catholics thought that, as the son of a Catholic mother, James would protect them ; the Puritans hoped the same, since James had been brought up as a Presbyterian ; and the Anglicans expected much because the English Church was now established as a department of the State, with the sovereign as its supreme head. These last were the only people not to be bitterly disappointed.

In Scotland the King had so often found himself thwarted by the Presbyterian clergy that he counted upon the Anglican system of bishops appointed by himself to control the preachers and to lead them to support, instead of opposing, his kingly power. In Scotland, too, the most ardent royalists were to be found among the Catholics. His advisers had warned James to be gentle with the Catholics, who were now fewer in number through long persecution. But when he found that they, too, received him willingly, he remarked, “ Na’, na’, we’ll na’ need the Papists now.” So the harsh laws against the Catholics were

kept in force. Those who attended Catholic worship, which had to be practised secretly, were severely punished when betrayed; and those who did not attend the Protestant services in the State churches on Sundays were obliged to pay heavy fines. These people were called "recusants," and the Lord Chancellor ordered the judges who were going on circuit to be active in hunting them down, "to pursue them and seek them out." So energetically was this done that the officers appointed ("pursuivants" was their suitable name) would divide up the districts between them and visit every house, rich or poor. If money was not paid down the furniture would be seized. It is said that the King's treasury received quite £3,600 a year from these fines during the first part of his reign.

"No Bishop, no King."—The Puritans, though not at first so harshly treated, were also greatly disappointed. They drew up a "**Millenary**" petition which they presented to James, asking that the Church services should be made more like the Presbyterian form of worship; no sacred symbols, no kneeling for Communion, and no surplice worn. This he refused entirely and scolded them roundly. To the Presbyterians, who wished for Church government without bishops, he said warily, "No bishop, no king." And as he had very strong ideas as to his "divine right" to govern as he wished, he looked to the Anglicans to support him. The bishops in their Convocation had gone even beyond the King's

BOOK V.—PUPIL'S



King James I.

From a painting by P. van Somer, dated 1621, in the National Portrait Gallery.

(From Gardiner's "*Student's History of England.*")

own ideas, and declared that "he is above the law by his absolute power." When Parliament asked for some "grievances" to be remedied, he flouted their request.

King and Parliament.—Besides dismissing the Parliament's religious grievances so abruptly, the King exercised what he believed to be his "divine right" to impose certain taxes upon imported goods. It is true he had need of money, for Elizabeth had left not only an empty treasury, but also a heavy debt. And she had occasionally ventured to get money without consulting Parliament. But now, the temper of the people and the Parliament was different; and no one felt for the obstinate, blundering King any of the respectful affection that had been hers. Whatever dispute arose, there was also sure to be brought in the vexing question as to whether the King could act independently of the Parliament, or the Parliament independently of the King. The country was gradually becoming divided into two parties, each convinced that its own view was right.

Once, when a man named Goodwin, who had been outlawed, was elected a member of Parliament, the King declared his election "null and void," though the Commons protested that he had no right to do this. Then a merchant refused to pay the King's tax on some imported currants, and though the judges of the King's Bench gave a verdict that he was bound to pay, few accepted the decision.

So that when in 1608 James desired the union of England and Scotland, the Parliament refused, partly through ill-will to the Scottish favourites at Court, and partly from the desire to thwart the domineering monarch. James had been quite right in his remark, "No bishop, no king," for the Puritans followed up their revolt against Church authority with a similar revolt against royal authority. The King's first Parliament was dissolved in 1611 after sitting from the beginning of his reign, with unfriendly feelings on both sides, and except for a short three-weeks' session of the "Addled Parliament," the King ruled for seven years without one.

Discontent and Plots.—From the first years of the reign there was great discontent throughout the country. The harsh laws against the Catholics, the King's overruling of the wishes of Parliament, the heavy taxes, and the unpopularity of the Scottish fashions of the Court, touched nearly all classes of the people. As a result there were various plots and conspiracies against the new ruler, the best-known being the "**Gunpowder Plot**" of 1605, which was said to intend to blow up the House of Lords and the King. Another, a year or two before, in which that gallant adventurer, Sir Walter Raleigh, was supposed to be concerned, the "**Bye**" plan, had aimed at seizing the King and holding him captive until he granted toleration. The only result was, of course, greater harshness in the laws, and especially in the penalties inflicted on Catholics.

In Scotland there was an even worse state of things. Though the Queen, Anne of Denmark, had become a Catholic before James VI. became James I., she had no influence in preventing the persecutions, and Scottish Catholics could not escape by paying a fine. They were liable to have all their possessions taken away, or to be banished from the country, if they absented themselves from the Protestant churches on Sunday. There were only three or four priests left in Scotland until the staunch and fearless Jesuit missions began.

The Presbyterians were equally discontented. The King interfered with their General Assembly, or governing body, and the bishops he had established a few years before were not accepted by the larger part of the Scottish Kirk. He threatened and imprisoned their ministers for "seditious" preaching, and forbade the opening of the Scots Parliament. So that there was the same kind of discontent as in England and plots and conspiracies, real or suspected, which were cruelly put down. At about the time of the Gunpowder Plot in London, ministers of the stricter Presbyterians were imprisoned in Edinburgh and punished as traitors for preaching against bishops. James is said to have remarked that "the Papists sought his life, and the preachers sought his crown."

How the King governed without a Parliament.—James chose for his ministers the clever courtiers who flattered him. The chief one, who was his right hand for many years, was the **Duke of Buckingham**.

This nobleman was one of the companions of the young Prince of Wales, and the King sent them to Spain to arrange a marriage of the Prince to the Spanish Infanta. This made the Puritans very angry as Spain was known to be the leading Catholic country, and the Princess was a Catholic. They approved much more of the marriage of his daughter Elizabeth to Frederick, the German Elector Palatine, who was the leader of the Protestant party on the Continent. The Spanish marriage plan fell through, and Prince Charles married **Henrietta Maria**, the beautiful sister of the King of France.

In order to get money the King sold honours and titles to rich men. He also sold certain trading rights (monopolies), which made the owners the only persons who might deal in the goods. Elizabeth had given these privileges to her favourites, but James sold them, and it made the articles scarce and dear. When such necessities as salt, vinegar, and leather were thus "protected" many poor households felt the hardships. The King also imposed taxes on certain goods imported from foreign countries. And in the hope of getting some of the Spanish gold that was so much coveted, he set free the daring Walter Raleigh who had been imprisoned in the Tower for thirteen years. Raleigh thought he knew of a wonderful gold mine in Guiana, and the King gave him permission to fit out an expedition to go and explore it. He was unsuccessful and, worse still, had trespassed on the Spanish possessions, so



Sir Walter Raleigh (1552–1618) and his eldest son Walter, at the age of eight.

From a picture, dated 1602, belonging to Sir J. F. Lennard, Bart.

(From Gardner's "Student's History of England.")

that when he returned he was executed to prevent a war with Spain (1618), though the actual charge against him was that for which he had been imprisoned, conspiracy for Arabella Stewart.

James's Next Parliament.—At this time a great war began between Spain and Germany, partly religious and partly political. **The Elector Frederick**, James's son-in-law, was the leader of the Protestant princes of Germany, and to supply him with an army the King needed money. So he summoned Parliament in 1621, and the Commons were willing to make a grant in aid of Protestantism, but they coupled it with some demands which much displeased the King. They asked first, that England should publicly ally herself with the German Protestants against Spain; and next, that the penal laws against Catholics should be more strictly enforced. The King bade them leave alone such high matters. The Commons insisted that they were free to discuss what they pleased.

This sort of thing had happened under Elizabeth, but she had the good sense to know when to waive a point, which James could not bring himself to do. He sent for the Journals of the House and tore out the leaves which recorded the debate.

There was further trouble when the Commons took up the sore subject of "monopolies" and the other ways in which the King had obtained money. Buckingham, who held several of these "trading rights," was so impressed with the fierce attack that

he gave them all up. Another matter was the evil habit among the judges of taking presents from people whose cases they were about to try; even the Lord Chancellor, Francis Bacon, was accused of it. This learned man, the "little lord keeper" of Queen Elizabeth, who sometimes saw the grave-faced boy in his father's house, was one of the most able men of the time. But he had not at all a sensitive conscience, and had always considered rather what was profitable than what was right. One reason why Parliament pressed the attack was that he had always been a strong supporter of the "monopolies," and thus all merchants and traders were against him. He was impeached and convicted of bribery, and condemned to pay a heavy fine.

Another subject still which the King and his ministers did not want publicly discussed was the proposed marriage of the Prince of Wales to the French princess. The Commons laid down the express condition that the English Catholics should still be as harshly persecuted although a Catholic princess was married to the heir to the throne.

The King was determined, as it was said, "to be his own pope." In Scotland "all Catholics had to choose between loss of lands and goods and native country, or loss of conscience and honour." In England they were heavily fined and punished as "recusants," and had none of the rights of citizens, while they were blamed and made the scapegoats for any mischievous or disloyal affair. In the last

year of his life James had threatened to remove the Scottish law courts from Edinburgh to London if the Presbyterians refused to go to Communion on Christmas Day. Thus a heavy crop of troubles had been sown for his son to reap.

King James and Foreign Affairs.—Abroad, as well as at home, James I. contrived to carry out his ideas without the help of Parliament. As successor to Queen Elizabeth he inherited the tradition of war with Spain; but like his ancestor, Henry VII., he leant more to alliances than to fighting. Hence his desire that Prince Charles should marry the Spanish princess, a proposal most unpopular in the country. It seems strange to us now that at the very time when he was planning the marriage, his daughter Elizabeth was the wife of the Elector Frederick, the Protestant leader on the Continent, and therefore the enemy of Catholic Spain. It was while James was ruling without a Parliament that the **Thirty Years' War** broke out, and his son-in-law's dominions were in peril. Very reluctantly he permitted a regiment of volunteers to go to the Palatinate, but when at last in 1621 he summoned Parliament, the Commons coupled their grant of supplies with the demand that definite help should be sent to the Protestant leader. The same occurred in his last Parliament (1624), and the demand was granted, but the expeditionary troops were so badly led and ill-furnished that they were of little use and died in large numbers of want.

Not all the foreign affairs were so unfortunate as those, however, while the King was his own minister. One successful arrangement was a commercial treaty with Russia, then a country but little known. The **Muscovy Company** had been founded fifty years before, now under the English James I. and the Russian Czar Michael, it had greater privileges and became wealthy and influential.

The Founding of New England.—Towards the close of the King's reign there took place an event which was to have far-reaching consequences. Though there were many sects among the Puritans the two main bodies were those who, like the Presbyterians, wished to abolish bishops and all forms and ceremonies, but who were willing to accept a State Church ; and those who desired what may be called a "republican" government of both Church and State. To these last the idea of a King ruling by Divine Right (upon which we remember James I. and his supporters were strongly resolute) was especially hateful. They openly proclaimed themselves "Separatists," both from the Established Church and civil government, and as such were suspected and persecuted by the authorities. A party of them determined to become exiles from their native land, in search of religious freedom, and set sail from Plymouth in the gaily named vessel the *Mayflower*.

They landed first in Holland but could find no settlement there, so went on to the New World and,

on the Atlantic sea-board of America, founded the **New England** States. Though mistaken and narrow in their religious views these first settlers were undoubtedly honest and sincere. But their after-story, of penal laws and cruelties to later exiles, showed that their ideas of religious freedom meant freedom only to those of their own way of thinking, and they enforced upon every one a severe and joyless code of life.

CHAPTER II

*THE STRUGGLE WITH THE CROWN—CHARLES I.**Summary.*

ENGLAND		SCOTLAND
Charles I. became King, with Buckingham as his chief minister.	1625	
Help was sent under Buckingham to the French Protestants at La Rochelle.	1627	
Parliament presented the Petition of Right.	1628	The Penal laws were strictly enforced against Scottish Catholics.
The King dissolved Parliament and governed without one.	1629	
Wentworth (Earl Strafford) became Lord Deputy of Ireland.	1633	Charles I. visited Scotland and sought to compel the use of Laud's service-book.
Archbishop Laud controlled all Church matters and compelled uniformity of worship and episcopal government.		
John Hampden refused to pay the tax revived by the King known as ship-money; he was tried, and the judges decided against him.	1637	The "Bishops' War" began.
	1638	The Scots "National Covenant" to resist episcopacy was signed by thousands who were known henceforth as "Covenanters."
The Short Parliament was summoned and dismissed, and the Long Parliament assembled.	1640	The General Assembly ordered the destruction of all sacred objects at Aberdeen.

The Early Years of Charles I.—Immediately after his accession Charles I. married the French princess Henrietta Maria. This had been arranged by his father and Buckingham when the proposed Spanish alliance fell through, and it had been grudgingly sanctioned by Parliament on account of the princess being a Catholic. But the Puritan leaders thought Spain a greater peril and trusted that, allied with France, England would be able to stand against her. The King was made to promise that English Catholics should have no advantage through his marriage with a Catholic princess; and Parliament would grant only two royal chapels for the Queen and her ladies and attendants. But through his consort's influence and his own gentler nature, Charles was able to check a little of the persecution.

The King's chief counsellor at first was Buckingham, as he had been his father's. This nobleman was of a gay and reckless character, immensely proud, and of such insolent manners, even in the royal presence, as to shock the French ambassador. He was both envied and dreaded by all at court. Every favour had to be asked through him, and by him were distributed estates, titles, trading privileges, or office. The Puritan merchants and country gentlemen of the Parliament frankly detested him, and their feelings were reflected in the popular mind. Buckingham loved meddling in high matters and foreign affairs, and his position under James I. had given him almost unlimited power. Though always

ready to pick a quarrel, and brave enough to fight in one, he was not an able commander or a skilful manager of men, while his extravagance and affected behaviour offended many of his friends.

Charles I. and his Parliaments.—In each of the three Parliaments, 1625–28, the chief cause of dispute was the position and power of Buckingham, and the Commons would vote only small amounts of money. The King, of course, refused to dismiss a minister at the bidding of Parliament, and the matter was tragically ended by the assassination of the unpopular earl by one of his many enemies. But there were also other grievances of which Parliament complained. One was that of compelling districts or persons to “lend” money to the King; another that of “billeting” soldiers on private citizens, and especially on those who ventured to resist the loan. The army was being increased, partly for the foreign war in aid of the Elector Palatine against Austria and Spain, and partly on the score of a threatened invasion of England, and there was little money for its upkeep. Thus civilians often found themselves at the mercy of these rough inmates of their households, and as offences were tried by “martial” law, petitioners were apt to come off worst. Then sometimes people charged with offences were kept in prison without trial, treatment which English law forbade even before the Magna Charta was wrung from King John.

Hence, in the Parliament of 1628, Charles I. was

faced with a list of grievances set out on what was termed a **Petition of Right** (not a petition for favours). The Commons, led by three sturdy Puritans—Eliot, Wentworth, and Coke—refused to grant supplies unless the fourfold Petition was granted :

1. No loan or tax to be raised except by Parliament.

2. No one to be imprisoned without his offence being stated.

3. No soldiers or mariners to be billeted on private citizens.

4. No trials by martial law in time of peace.

Unfortunately the King and his ministers signed a promise to grant the Petition without intending to keep the promise (because compelled by force). Then the House of Commons passed a declaration that "those who introduce changes in religion," or "exact tonnage and poundage" (taxes on imported goods) "are public enemies." This was aimed at the King and his ministers, and Eliot, the leader, was thrown into prison and remained there till he died, three years later. And for eleven years the King ruled alone, as his father had done.

Also, like his father, Charles I. continued an active patronage of the Muscovy Company trading in Russia, and in various kingly letters he begs to purchase corn from the Czar's granaries to relieve the "great dearth" in his kingdom. This, he explained, was due to the quantities of corn "daily shipped out of our Kingdoms of England and Scotland

to supply the necessities of the Princes of our Confederacy, whose dominions lie wasted and ruined by the fearful destruction of a long war" (the Thirty Years' War). But nearer home there were points in his ways of governing which were leading to grave trouble.

Charles I. ruled without a Parliament 1629-1640.—Strangely enough one of the three ministers who carried out the King's orders during this time was one of those who had helped to draw up the Petition of Right. This was **Wentworth**, who had become convinced that a single powerful ruler could govern a country better than a Parliament whose members quarrelled among themselves. Another was Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, a good and learned man who wanted to make the Church of England as much as possible like the Roman Catholic in services and ceremonies. The third was the Lord Treasurer, the Earl of Portland. The tasks of these men were no easy ones. Wentworth was made President of the Council of the North, a very important post. He had to make the royal authority feared and respected in the northern counties, Northumberland and Cumberland, which were hardly part of England; and the border counties where the old unfriendly raids between Scots and English were still taking place.

Archbishop Laud, naturally, controlled all Church matters, and soon set himself to bring Scottish religion into line with the Anglican. But the bishops, introduced by James I., were hardly tolerated, and

the stricter Presbyterians would not hear of a prayer-book or the wearing of a surplice in church. The whole country was in an uproar, and the King



King Charles I.

From a painting by Van Dyck.

(From Gardiner's "*Student's History of England.*")

threatened to compel every one to "conform." It was during this unhappy strife that the exciting things happened of which Scott tells us in his *Old Mortality*.

Meanwhile the Lord Treasurer, knowing that one way to have enough money is to spend very little, cleverly stopped some of the King's heavy expenses, and among them the army and supplies for the Elector Frederick's Protestant war. Also, he found out many ways of imposing taxes without angering the people too much. He induced the seaports to build ships, or to contribute money for building them, though there was not really a war on at home.

Wentworth was so successful in reducing the unruly Northerners to order that he was next made Governor of Ireland. He very wisely began by setting the people to work so that they would have less time to quarrel. There were the native Irish people, very poor, very ignorant, and living on barren land which they did not know how to cultivate. There were the Protestant settlers of fifty or sixty years before, who had become Irish in everything except religion. And there were the recent English and Scottish ne'er-do-wells who had been "planted" there chiefly to displace the Catholic natives. With his energetic motto, "Thorough," the new Governor got even this disorderly country into something like order. He had a Parliament formed, in which sat both Protestants and Catholics; schools built; farming and land cultivation improved; linen and other industries set up; and had the rough, wild lads of the countryside drilled into a smart and soldierly army. But he paid no attention to the wishes of the people themselves, and especially

BOOK V.—PUPIL'S

in the matter of religion: he put down opposition with a strong hand and compelled everybody to fall in. Now the Irish cared much more for their religion and freedom to live in their own way than for wealth and comfort, or living regular lives in the Governor's way; so that underneath there was much simmering discontent, which burst out when Wentworth's stern rule was no longer present.

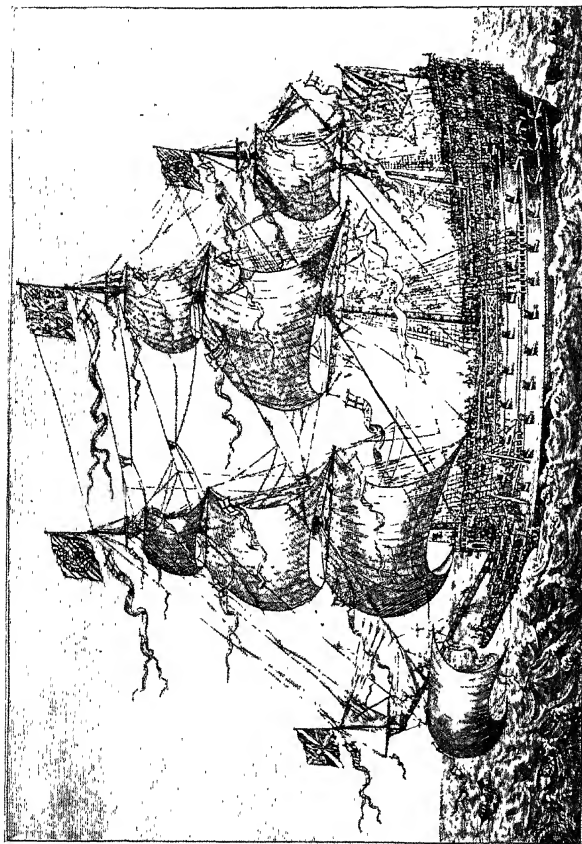
Out of what might have been the great work of these three ministers—Archbishop Laud, the Governor of Ireland, and the Lord Treasurer—there arose the chief points of the bitter quarrel between the King and the Parliament. For the Scottish Presbyterians pledged themselves in a **Solemn Covenant** to resist the reforms Laud wanted, as "Popery," and sent an army ready to cross the border and fight the King's forces in the "**Bishops' War.**"

Things were so serious that Wentworth was sent for, and on his advice a Parliament was called at Westminster, though nothing was done on account of "grievances." Meanwhile, another minister had charge of money matters, and had extended the "ship" tax to inland counties. A country gentleman, one **Hampden**, a Member of Parliament, refused to pay, and when the case was tried the judges decided against him. But it was only by a majority of two, and the feeling of the country was with Hampden.

Directly Wentworth's iron hand was removed from Ireland a serious revolt broke out. The native Irish rose against the Scottish and English Protestants.

and as the English army in the north was only half-hearted in defence, the Scots crossed the border, and held some of the towns. The Governor of Ireland was suspected of proposing to bring over his fine Irish army to crush the Scots. Puritan sympathies all over the country were with the Scots, who seemed to be resisting religious tyranny: with Hampden because he was plainly against royal taxation: and with the Protestant colonists in Ireland who were the victims of the Catholic rising. And, naturally, all the men waiting to be summoned to Parliament knew whom to blame—the two ministers of the King who would have none of their rebellious questioning and “grievances.”

The Long Parliament, 1640–1642.—With Scottish soldiers holding English towns, an Irish population in revolt, and no money in hand, the King summoned a Parliament, his last. Led by **John Pym** and with Hampden as their hero, the Puritan Commons at once attacked Wentworth (now Lord Strafford) and Archbishop Laud, and had them sent to the Tower. Six months later they had accused Strafford of being a “public enemy,” condemned him to death, and got the House of Lords to agree. Only the King’s signature was needed. People could not believe that he would sign the death-warrant of the man who had served him so well, even if a revolution followed his refusal. Strafford begged his master not to risk his throne for his sake, and after miserable hesitation Charles signed the document and Strafford



The "Sovereign of the Seas," built for the Royal Navy in 1637.

From a contemporary engraving by John Payne.

(From Gardiner's "Student's History of England." Reduced.)

was executed. As he was led through London streets he passed the barred window of Laud's prison, and the Archbishop stretched out his hands and blessed him. Soon after he, too, was executed on the same spot on Tower Hill.

But though Charles had hoped that by thus giving way the Parliament would be satisfied, it was far from being so. He might well murmur, "Strafford is a happier man than I," and the Puritans exclaim, "He has given us Strafford! He can deny us nothing now!" Which was true; for never again could the King refuse his signature to their Bills.

During the summer of 1641 Queen Henrietta Maria had borne him a little son, Henry, and with something of the old loyal instinct the people had rejoiced with the royal couple. But the Parliament were busily preparing what they called the "**Grand Remonstrance**" which was to curb still more the power of the King. He went to Scotland in the hope of smoothing matters there, and listened to long sermons and sat out stormy scenes in the Parliament while Royalists and Covenanters angrily debated. When he hurried back to London it was to find that the Government had sent the Queen's confessor to the Tower, banished nearly all of her Catholic court and attendants, forbidden Catholic worship anywhere, even in the Queen's chapels, and arrested some Catholic peers and gentlemen as "dangerous to the State."

BOOK V.—PUPIL'S

The King tried to exert an authority which he had lost. He ordered the imprisonment of the five leaders of the Commons, of whom Pym and Hampden were the chief, and, when the House of Lords hesitated to obey, Charles himself went down to the House with an armed guard. He demanded of the Speaker the five offenders, but they had fled into the City, and the King had to withdraw, having done no good but only angered the Puritans more bitterly. Then things came rapidly to a head. When the Parliament claimed the right to control the militia, it was plain that they meant war. Charles sent the Queen to Holland to their married daughter, and the King with his "commissions of array," and the Parliament with their troops of militia under the Earl of Essex, prepared for the fight.

Mostly the towns were for the Parliament and the country districts for the King, but the landowners and peers were divided. Roughly speaking, the north and the west were for the King, and the south and the east against him. All the east coast ports were in the hands of the Parliament, which gave them a great advantage. The King could not communicate with friends abroad, nor get hold of the customs dues.

CHAPTER III

THE CIVIL WAR (1642-1649)

Summary.

ENGLAND		SCOTLAND
Charles I. assembled his army at Nottingham; the Parliament theirs at Northampton.	1642	The Solemn League and Covenant was made to maintain Presbyterianism.
<i>Royalist Victories—</i> Edgehill (1642). Chalgrove Field (1643). Newbury (1) (1643). Cropredy Bridge (1644).	1643	The Scottish Covenanters marched into England and fought against the King. The Marquis of Montrose rallied the Royalist forces and won some victories for the King.
<i>Parliamentary Victories—</i> Marston Moor (1644). Newbury (2) (1644). Naseby (1645).	1645	Montrose was defeated at Philiphaugh by Leslie.
Prince Rupert, with a Cavalier fleet, attacked English coasts.	1646	King Charles gave himself up to the Scots. As he refused to sign the Covenant, they handed him over to the Parliament.
The Rump Parliament, consisting only of some extreme members of the House of Commons, tried the King and condemned him to death. He was executed at Whitehall.	1648	The Scots royalists invaded England. Cromwell defeated them at Preston.
	1649	Prince Charles, son of Charles I., was proclaimed King in Scotland.

The Progress of the Civil War.—There were really three periods of the Civil War: the first (1642-44)

while the King in person was holding his own ; the second (1645-49) when the Royalists were defeated and the King taken and imprisoned ; and the third (1649-51) when, after the execution of Charles, Cromwell had yet to subdue the country and establish the Commonwealth. Here we are concerned with the first two periods.

After setting up his standard at Nottingham the King gave the command of the army to his nephew, **Prince Rupert**, a daring young general. There flocked to the support of the King plenty of "men of spirit," and they were soon formed into a dashing band of cavalry. The Parliamentary militia, under the dull Earl of Essex, was barely trained in soldierly ways, and consisted of "many mean and base fellows," the wastrels of the towns. The Puritans, who had for some years adopted a sombre and severe style of dress as a protest against the gay costumes with elaborate trimmings of the gentlemen of the period, wore their hair cut short and stood in large square-toed shoes. The laces, feathered hats, and long curls of the Cavaliers were especially abhorrent to them though, when it came to fighting, it was found that brave soldiers were wearing them. "**Cavalier** " and "**Roundhead**," the party names of the day, have been handed down to us in history as the opposing forces in the Civil War.

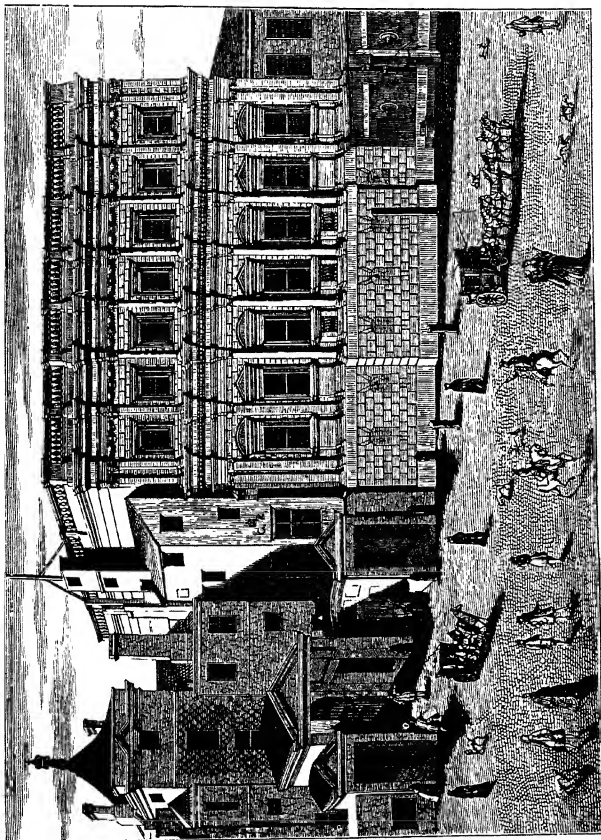
At first the Royalists were victorious. After the battle of **Edgehill** (1642) the King made his headquarters at Oxford, and the colleges and halls of the

University became the residence of the King and Queen, the seat of his council or Parliament, and the royal court of justice.

At the battle of **Chalgrove Field** (1643) the Parliamentary leader, John Hampden, was killed, and it seemed that the King's cause might win. For many of the men who had opposed Charles's methods of ruling when he was in power feared still more the tyranny of a Puritan Parliament, and fought on the King's side. But two things occurred which boded ill for the royal power : (1) the strengthening of the Parliamentary army by a large number of recruits sternly trained by an eastern county man, **Oliver Cromwell** ; and (2) the further help of a contingent of Scottish Covenanters, with whom the English Puritans had made a league (" **The Solemn League and Covenant** ").

So that after two years the tide turned. Cromwell's resolute, well-drilled men, whom he rightly called Ironsides, defeated Prince Rupert's army at **Marston Moor** (1644). The Scottish Royalists, under the **Marquis of Montrose**, made a brave attempt to hold back the Covenanters, but only a small victory was gained. Besides enlisting men and training them into hardy fighters Cromwell got inefficient Parliamentary leaders dismissed, and ensured that his forces should be well managed by having himself and a like-minded man, **General Fairfax**, made sole commanders.

The Last Years of Charles I., 1644-1649.—At



View of the west side of the Banqueting House, Whitehall. From an engraving by Terasson, dated 1713. It is believed that Charles came out through the window above which a crown is marked.

(From Gardiner's "Student's History of England.")

Naseby in the same year Cromwell's army was victorious, and nearly captured the King. His private papers and possessions were seized, and some plans and proposals were found among the writings which showed that the King intended to get foreign help against the Parliament and also to befriend the Catholics. At the same time the Covenanters defeated the noble Earl of Montrose, the hope of the Scottish Royalists, at Philiphaugh. Charles gave himself up to the Covenanters, thinking, quite vainly, that he could make peace with them, if not with the English Puritans. But they handed him over to their allies, the Parliamentary generals, receiving in return the arrears of pay the Parliament had promised them. This was in 1646, and for three years the King was imprisoned in various places.

Once the Scottish Royalists invaded England for Charles I., but Cromwell defeated them at **Preston** (1648). During the King's imprisonment he was unskilfully guarded and many plots and counterplots were made for him. For, besides the out-and-out Royalists and the strong Puritans, there was still a between-party, who wanted the King to govern *with* Parliament, not by himself; and certainly not the Parliament by itself. Also, among the determined Puritans there were quarrels. One very bitter party, the **Levellers**, clamoured for the death of the King; others wished only to curb his power.

BOOK V.—PUPIL'S

At length, in 1649, it was decided that the King should be brought to trial by a Parliament of his subjects; Cromwell saw to it that no moderate-minded men should enter the House. An armed guard under **General Pride**, "purged" the assembly of all those who were not of Cromwell's way of thinking. When it was proposed to Charles that he should become a kind of President he indignantly refused. He listened quietly to the heavy accusation read, that he was "tyrant, traitor, murderer, and the public and implacable enemy to the Commonwealth," and answered with dignity. For many days the "trial" lasted. Once, when in a speech it was said that the charge was brought by the "voice of the people," a woman's voice in the gallery rang out, "No, not one-tenth of the people"; which indeed was true.

There was always a strong military guard to put down any expression of popular sympathy, but from behind their ranks men and women called out as the King passed, "God preserve your Majesty." A soldier was moved to say, "God bless you, sir," and was struck smartly on the head by an officer's cane. In order to turn people against the King for other than political reasons, Cromwell persisted in calling him "this man of blood," as though he alone were responsible for the deaths in battle. Then the end came.

On a Tuesday morning, January 30, 1649, a bitter winter's day, with the Thames frozen over, a

THE GRIP-FAST HISTORY BOOKS

little procession made its way to the balcony of a window of the Palace of Whitehall, outside of which a scaffold was built. The tall form of the King appeared, attended by Bishop Juxon, who murmured prayers and words of brave counsel at his ear. Then he knelt and placed his head upon the block, and the headsman's axe came down. A deep groan burst from the crowds below, but they were immediately scattered by the troops of military who rode to and fro clearing the streets.

A thrill of horror ran through the civilized world as the news of the dark deed was made known. Even the young Czar Alexis, of semi-barbarous Russia, joined in the protests of the other European sovereigns. He banished the merchants of the Muscovy Company from his realm, nor would he ever admit Cromwell's envoy, or permit trading intercourse to be re-established while the Commonwealth lasted.

Young Prince Charles had sought in vain for powerful help for his royal father before the end came. He had even sent to Lord Fairfax, the head of the moderate party, a blank sheet of parchment bearing his arms and signature, for them to name what conditions they would, if only they would spare the King's life. The loyal Scots at once proclaimed him King as Charles II.; even the Covenanters had not desired the death of his father, and accepted him on condition of his signing the Covenant. From his refuge in Holland at the court

of his sister and her husband, the Prince of Orange, Charles II. corresponded with the gallant Montrose, who again appealed to the Highland clans to come forward and fight for their King. But hardly any cared to volunteer, and he and his little band of soldier-adventurers were defeated and captured.

Argyll, who was his implacable foe, was the chief of the Government, and the patriotic Montrose was shamefully hanged. But the victors were prepared to make terms with the exiled King, and soon we shall find him returning to Scotland to gain his throne.

The Royal Family.—Queen Henrietta Maria had escaped to France, which was also in a very disturbed state. There were insurrections, and presently the young King, Louis XIV., aged ten, and the Queen Regent were driven from Paris. The English Queen was herself besieged by the rebels in the palace of the Louvre, and during the weeks of King Charles's imprisonment and trial she could learn hardly any news of him. Prince **James, Duke of York**, and his young sister and brother were under ward in St. James's Palace during the last days of their father's life; and three months later, with the help of some faithful subjects, James made his escape to Flushing, disguised as a young woman, on a small cargo boat. There, his sister **Mary, Princess of Orange**, befriended him, and he made his way to Paris to the Queen. The younger children were sent to Fotheringhay Castle and there the Princess Elizabeth died.

The young Prince Henry was sent to Paris to his mother with the little Princess Henrietta. Their eldest brother, **Charles II.**, and the Duke of York stayed in Jersey, where the Stewart cause was



Queen Henrietta Maria, wife of Charles I.
From a painting by Van Dyck.

(From Gardiner's "*Student's History of England.*")

warmly supported ; then it was that young James first learned to take an interest in ships and naval matters, for which in later days he was to become noted. The two brothers were fast friends, though

very different in disposition and character ; Charles always desirous for his younger brother's welfare, and James an admiring and faithful subject. When the Scottish expedition was undertaken Charles sent the young duke back to Paris.

The Story of Ireland, 1603-1649.—When James I. came to the throne the Irish people had made their last great effort to win their freedom and their leaders had fled. The English statesman, Bacon, Earl Verulam, was at the head of a commission to consider the next step. He advised the driving out of the Irish from the fertile lands of the six counties of Ulster, and “planting” there instead English and Scottish settlers. The heads of each settlement were to have 2,000 acres each, and were forbidden to let land or house to any Irish. Lesser landowners likewise might have no Catholic Irish as tenants or workers on their estates. What land was left in the hands of its original owners was mostly barren ; and the dispossessed people were bidden to depart “into the hills and glens and bogs,” where they were faced with starvation. Forthwith the new settlers were met with bitter resentment, and the poor outlawed natives felt themselves justified in raiding their lands. Few of the immigrants were real hard-working country people, but rather the very lowest populations of the big towns, many of them deserving of prison. To keep order a garrison of soldiers had been placed in camps over the country. In other parts there was great unrest, for only Protestants

could sit in the Irish Parliament, and the Catholics were everywhere ill-treated.

So that when in 1633 the stern, competent Wentworth became Governor, he found that the original inhabitants were sunk in poverty and misery, most of the people becoming barbarous, and where peaceful industry was unknown. His iron hand, as we have seen, produced an improvement, but his attempts to "reform" their religion as well as their social life, set them against him.

The revolt which broke out when Wentworth returned to England was savagely made, and even more savagely put down. Then the Puritan Parliament passed an Act for the "**Extirpation of Popery**" and this moved every Catholic heart to resistance. The Irish gentry formed an association, "For God, King, and Country," which won thousands to its banner; for though they had every reason to detest the ministers and the government they cherished a keen loyalty to the King. All the years of the Civil War in England there was fighting, too, in Ireland, and though there were brave leaders and devoted workers, their labours were undone by constant quarrels and jealousies among themselves. Things in Ireland were at their darkest when the news came that the King was beheaded; the people's energies exhausted, their hopes vanquished, and a strong union impossible. The next year Cromwell set on foot his ruthless "No quarter" warfare.

Questions and Exercises

JAMES I. AND CHARLES I.

1. Who were (1) Recusants ; (2) Pursuivants ; (3) Presbyterians ?
2. Write down three of the short sayings of James I. To whom did he say them, and why ?
- ✕ 3. Tell the story of *one* of the plots in the reign of James I.
4. Write a short account of Sir Walter Raleigh or the Duke of Buckingham.
5. Describe some of Wentworth's reforms in Ireland.
6. On a blank map of the British Isles mark in some of the important places of the Civil War (red for King Charles, blue for the Parliament).
- ✕ 7. Who were (1) Prince Rupert ; (2) General Fairfax ; (3) Colonel Pride ?
8. Two young brothers of Oxford became soldiers : one in Prince Rupert's army the other in the Parliamentary force. What did they say to each other in explaining their reasons ? Which would you have joined ?

Useful Reference Books for Period 1603-1660

Trevelyan's Reprint from Macaulay's History : *Life in England 300 Years Ago*.

Macaulay's *Essays on Hampden, Milton, Bacon*.

Palgrave's *Visions of England*.

Evelyn's *Diary* (1620-60).

Browning : *Selections, Marching Songs* [*Boot and Saddle, Cavalier Song, etc.*].

Scott's Novels : *Fortunes of Nigel* (1603-25) ; *Woodstock* (1642-60) ; *Old Mortality* (1637-42) ; *Legend of Montrose* (1642-48).

Episodes Suitable for Class Acting

1. Raleigh in prison writing his *History of the World*.
2. Raleigh's farewell to the King on starting for Guiana.
3. Bacon leaving the House of Lords after his sentence.
4. Strafford in the Tower with his children [Browning's *Strafford*, vol. ii.].
5. Strafford on his way to execution passing Laud at his prison window.
6. Charles I. trying to arrest the five members.

CHAPTER IV

*THE COMMONWEALTH (1649-1660)**Summary.*

ENGLAND		SCOTLAND
Cromwell and the Rump Parliament governed England. There were at once Royalist revolts in the north, in Scotland, and in Ireland. Cromwell went to Ireland as Lord-Lieutenant and stormed Drogheda and Wexford.	1649	Franciscan and Benedictine missions came to Scotland to keep the Faith alive. The Duke of Argyll in Scotland defeated Montrose.
Prince Rupert's fleet was defeated by Admiral Blake.	1650	Cromwell went to Scotland as Lord General, and defeated the Scots under Leslie at Dunbar.
Cromwell was made Protector.	1651	The Scots, under Charles II., invaded England. The army was pursued by Cromwell and shattered at Worcester.
In the Dutch war at sea the Commonwealth fleet, under Monk and Blake, were victorious in several battles.	1652-4	Scotland was joined with the English Commonwealth.
A buccaneering expedition was sent to the West Indies against Spain and captured Jamaica. Cromwell established a military government with himself as supreme head.	1653	James, Duke of York, fought in French army.
Cromwell died. Richard Cromwell became Protector.	1654	
	1655	
	1658	

The New Tyranny. (i) *England*.—We now see the man who had brought about the death of Charles I. for being a tyrant, becoming himself a crueller and more determined tyrant. He found that he had to subdue the English Royalists; those who had stood firm for the King, and those who were now ashamed that they had not done so. Then there were the Scots to conquer, who had proclaimed Charles II. King, and to prevent English sympathisers from helping them. There was also to win over the Presbyterians in both countries, for they had been against the execution of Charles as strongly as against his misgovernment. Most of all there were the Catholics to be suppressed, and on this Cromwell was determined. And the dangerous band of “Level-ers,” who had insisted on the death of the King, were now trying to make the army rebel; these had to be silenced. Besides all these, as a result of the Civil War, there were thousands of starving people, many of them ready to do anything desperate.

So “martial law” was established; the very thing which Charles had been so blamed for doing. The army was put under the strictest discipline (and there is no doubt it needed it), while some especially suspected regiments were sent to Ireland to get them out of the way. Popular sympathy, however, was with the soldiers. When one man out of a troop that mutinied was shot, his comrades arranged an imposing funeral procession through London, with his horse wearing black trappings, soldiers carrying

boughs dipped in blood, and drummers and trumpeters making solemn music. Thousands of London citizens wearing black streamers followed in the procession, and other thousands of sympathisers looked on. To quell this dangerous spirit Cromwell took the sternest measures, till people were almost afraid to speak to each other in the streets.

(ii) *Ireland*.—Then the Protector set out to reduce Ireland to submission. The Irish were determined not to be ruled by England and the Scottish settlers declared for the Stewarts. They had two bold leaders, **Ormond** and **Inchiquin**, and had got together quite a good muster of men to face the terrible Lord-Lieutenant and his army of twelve thousand hardy soldiers. Beginning with **Drogheda**, where he ordered “No quarter,” and the whole garrison and every Catholic townsman or refugee was killed, he marched on to **Wexford** and laid it low, and then through the land, leaving a trail of destruction behind him, till **Limerick’s** brave garrison made a noble stand.

The siege of this town has been the theme of many heroic tales and thrilling stories. There the Cromwellian general, Ireton, the Protector’s son-in-law, was killed and many of the besiegers; but Limerick had at last to surrender, and with the fall of Galway soon afterwards the victory of arms was won. But after the war there came the still more terrible “Settlement,” with cruelties which made the name of Cromwell a terror to later generations.

In olden times the Romans and the Lombards, and the Normans six centuries before, had been cruel conquerors, but never was a vengeance so deep and far-reaching as this.

The fighting men were drafted into foreign armies. Four counties and all Church lands were seized by the English Government, and the habitable country was divided into three districts. Of these, one was for Protestant settlers, one for English land-owners who were given great tracts for their estates, and upon which the native Irish were to be employed as labourers, and one for the Irish only. This last district was the barren region of Clare and Connaught. A great scheme like this took some years to complete, and during the time the native population were outlaws, the victims of pirates and slave-dealers, who scoured the coasts and raided villages for youths and maidens to sell to the planters of the West India islands.

Catholic prelates and priests were hunted out of the country; a price of £5 was set alike upon the head of a wolf and the head of a priest. Wild disorder reigned, and some of the bolder and more desperate men formed themselves into gangs of robbers and bandits, hiding in the mountains and plundering and murdering the new possessors. To them was given the name of Tories, in later days to become of very different meaning.

(iii) *Scotland*.—Let us look back for a moment to the beginning of the year 1649, when the Scottish

Royalists proclaimed Charles II. King, and sent messengers to him in Holland offering him the crown. At first all parties joined together to bring about the reign of another Stewart, but soon the Highlanders and the Covenanters quarrelled as to how this should be done. Montrose, the Highland leader, was hated by the men of the Covenant, and they seized him and condemned him to death. They were determined that the new King should sign the Covenant, which would bind him to support the Presbyterian religion, and this Charles II. was willing to do. General Fairfax, of whom we have heard before, refused to lead an army against the Scots, so Cromwell, flushed and triumphant from his Irish victories, went himself (1650). His first victory was at **Dunbar**, where through over-eagerness to fight, the Scots army rushed from their safe position, and thousands were killed.

Marching on to Edinburgh Cromwell was taken ill, and soon he had the news brought to him that Charles Stewart had crossed to Scotland, been crowned King at Scone, and was leading his army into England. As soon as he could he set off in pursuit and overtook the Scots and their leader at **Worcester**, where Charles had been proclaimed King. His forces soon scattered the little army, and Charles himself barely escaped. Then there began those weeks of adventurous flight in which the young King had many hairbreadth escapes. Boscobel and the Royal Oak, pillion-riding as a

market woman, and scare-crow disguises were all parts of this exciting story. Though thousands of people knew of his whereabouts not one was tempted by the high rewards, or frightened by the angry threats of the Government into betraying him. At last from Shoreham, on the Sussex coast, Charles embarked on a little vessel, and in the disguise of a merchant at length safely reached the French coast (1651).

Foreign Affairs.—It is not surprising that at first no foreign State would recognize a Commonwealth which had come into existence through the murder of its King. Even in Holland, where there was not a monarchy, but a Stadtholder, or president, Cromwell could get no one to acknowledge him; so he found a way to compel respect. Holland was then the carrier-nation of Europe: her ships were on all the seas and they distributed their cargoes at every port. When the English Parliament brought in the **Navigation Act** (1651) Dutch shipping trade was hard hit. It meant that any goods brought to English ports must be carried in English ships, and so with any goods sent out.

Of course, Holland struck back. First with a treaty with Denmark, hindering the English timber trade with the Baltic, and next by declaring war (1652–54). A Dutch admiral sailed his ship up the Thames with a broom tied to the mast-head, to announce that he had “swept the English off the seas.” The English Admiral **Blake** won a victory

soon after, and his flagship roamed the Channel with a whip strapped to the mast, showing how he had "whipped the Dutch home." And the victory restored a shred of dignity of which the English were very proud and jealous: that of having all ships salute their flag in token that England was "mistress of the narrow seas." Then a treaty was made with Holland by which that country agreed to give up the cause of the Stewarts.

There had been a great war on the Continent for thirty years between Austria and the German Protestant princes, and now that it was over France and Spain were most unfriendly. The "Huguenots," the Protestant party in France, asked the help of Spain against the great minister Cardinal Mazarin, and it was thought that Cromwell would help them. But he hated and feared Spain; and sent a fleet of "buccaneering" ships to attack the Spanish colonies in the West Indies when his demands for "free trade and free religion" in Spanish ports was refused. Thus Britain became possessed of **Jamaica**, which had been named after King Jaime of Spain.

In French Switzerland the Protestants were being persecuted under the Duke of Savoy, and Cromwell interfered to prevent this. He then made alliance with France and helped her to fight against Spain in the Netherlands. For this help and the victory in the battle of the Dunes Dunkirk was made over to England.

Cromwell as Protector.—We saw how dissatisfied

the Puritans had been with the government of James I. and Charles I., and yet Cromwell is managing no better. He set up a Council of State, had a House of Commons only, instead of two Houses of Parliament, and was made "Protector" by the army. The Parliament had tried to remain in power but Cromwell had marched to the House with a troop of soldiers and cleared them out. "We have had enough of this. I will put an end to it!" he declared. When he got together a few members who would, he thought, support him, they could do nothing and were soon dismissed. Then Cromwell was absolute, a King in all but name. He lived in the Palace of Whitehall and had money granted him to keep up his state. But it was not enough for all the things he wanted to do, and he dreaded calling Parliament together because they were sure to disagree among themselves and with him.

The country was kept in order by ten generals of the army, each ruling over a district. A foreign ambassador, writing at this time, said that London looked like a "garrison town, where nothing was to be seen but the marching of soldiers, and nothing to be heard but the sound of drums and trumpets." While declaring that "freedom of religion" was now for every one, two very important exceptions were made. "Popery and prelacy" were to be utterly crushed. That is, the Catholics and the Anglicans were not allowed to practise their religion. Cromwell never hesitated to imprison his generals who dis-

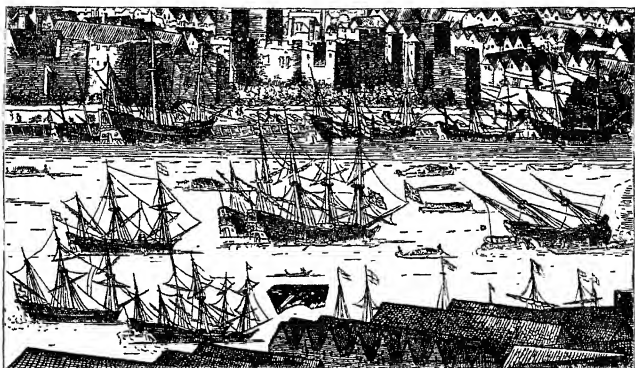
agreed with him, but even so he could not make them all of one mind. In 1656 one party proposed that he should be made King, which was what he desired. But he did not dare to take the title in the face of his frowning generals, and after this attempt he could rely upon no Parliament to do his will.

Cromwell as Dictator and absolute ruler was an unhappy man. His plan for government had failed, he knew he was hated and dreaded and, fearing assassination, went about surrounded by a band of soldiers and wore armour under his clothes. In his family he had little comfort. His eldest son, Richard, was a youth of weak character; the second, Henry, was more like himself, and him he made Governor of Ireland. So that Cromwell's death in 1658 found few to mourn him. His fierce tyranny had left a nation united only in hatred of the military force with which they had been governed.

Not only a party in the State but people of all degrees longed for a King again, and to be let alone in their trade and in their daily lives. Several men in high positions, including **General Monk**, the commander of the army in Scotland, were corresponding with the exiled Charles II., whose chancellor and chief minister was **Edward Hyde**, afterwards made **Earl of Clarendon**.

Richard Cromwell, whom the Dictator had wished to succeed him, soon tired of the empty show of power, and the Long Parliament, which had existed ever since 1640, but had no power to do anything,

dissolved itself. When a new Parliament was assembled (the Convention Parliament) it sent a formal letter to Charles II. inviting him to return and take the throne. From his court in Holland Charles replied, in what is known as the **Declaration**



Shipping in the Thames, circa 1660.

From Pricke's *South Prospect of London*.

(From Gardiner's "Student's History of England.")

of Breda, promising "a general pardon, liberty of conscience, and payment of arrears to the navy and the army." Only the actual murderers of his father, Charles I. (the regicides, as they were called), were to be beyond the scope of the pardon. The two Houses of Parliament replied with enthusiastic loyalty and once again England had a King.

CHAPTER V

THE RESTORATION (1660-1685)

Summary.

ENGLAND		SCOTLAND
Charles II. was recalled by the Convention Parliament and declared King amid great enthusiasm.	1660	
The Cavalier Parliament abolished the Solemn League and Covenant and restored Episcopacy.	1661	The Solemn League and Covenant was abolished by the Scots Parliament.
The Corporation Act was passed.		The Earl of Argyll was executed. His son escaped to Holland.
The Act of Uniformity was passed.	1662	Lord Lauderdale, head of the Scots Privy Council, was made Governor of Scotland, and Episcopacy was restored.
The Conventicle Act and the Five Mile Act became law. These four Acts are known as the Clarendon Code.	1664	
War was declared against Holland. The Great Plague raged in London.	1665	
London was partly destroyed by the Great Fire.	1666 1670	
The Test Act was passed.	1673	
Many innocent persons were put to death through one Titus Oates, who pretended to reveal a Popish Plot.	1678	
The Habeas Corpus Act was passed.	1679	An Act of Parliament forbade Conventicles.

ENGLAND	SCOTLAND
Charles II. died and James, Duke of York, became King. The Monmouth Rising took place.	<div>1680 James, Duke of York, was made Viceroy of Scotland.</div> <div>1685 The Duke of Argyll with an army invaded Scotland for Monmouth.</div>
The birth of James's son took place, and the revolution for William III.	1688

The Royal Family.—During their exile Charles II. and his brother James, Duke of York, had seen but little of each other. The King lived mostly in Holland and the Low Countries, greatly occupied in the plans of the supporters of the House of Stewart in England and Scotland, and elated and cast down in turns by the news which reached him. James went to France and served in the army under the noted Marshal Turenne, where he showed great courage and military skill. Afterwards, when Cromwell made peace with Louis XIV., the duke had to leave France and, curiously enough, he then joined the Spanish army under Don John of Austria. As a lad of nine James had been present with the Prince of Wales at the battle of Edgehill, and had made his father anxious by leaving the distant hill from which they were to witness the fighting in order to see better how the battle was going. Thus he was a soldier by choice and by training.

Now, when Charles was to return to his kingdom, it was arranged that his brother should accompany

him. Both were Protestants and James was especi



Charles II.

From the portrait by Sir Peter Lely in Christ's Hospital, W. Horsham
(From Gardiner's "*Student's History of England.*")

ally set against the Catholic Faith, while one of the conditions of Charles being restored as King was tha

he should maintain the established Protestant religion. So much had to be arranged that it was more than a year after the Declaration of Breda when the King and the duke really arrived in England.

Soon there had to be made known to Charles II. an event in his brother's life which greatly displeased him. A few months before, during the visit of his sister Mary, wife of the Prince of Orange, to his mother, Henrietta Maria, he had fallen in love with one of the ladies of her Court, Anne Hyde, daughter of Charles II.'s chancellor, and had secretly married her. The Queen-Mother, Henrietta Maria, could hardly be brought to forgive him, and Chancellor Hyde professed himself equally angry with his daughter. The Princess Mary of Orange was also offended, as the marriage set her former maid-of-honour in a rank above herself.

The King had made his brother James Lord High Admiral of the Fleet, and one of his first official duties was to fetch the Queen-Mother and his young brother and sister, Henry Duke of Gloucester and the little Henrietta, from Calais. Though rejoicing at her son's restoration Queen Henrietta Maria was not happy in coming again to England. The people received her with the greatest fervour and reverence, but she remembered sadly the unhappy latter years of Charles I.'s life and she soon returned to France.

The Early Years of the Restoration.—Charles II., once back in his kingdom and seated on his throne, was determined, as he said, “not to go on his travels

again." He cared little about how the country was governed, and having rewarded his chancellor, Hyde, with a title and estates as Lord Clarendon, left him to manage the kingdom, and overlooked his brother's offence in marrying without his permission. For five years Clarendon was the real ruler of England, and the Parliament which supported him carried all the measures he desired. These, which were intended to make impossible the practice of any religion but that of the Church of England, were so strict and far-reaching that the people who, under Cromwell, had been persecuted, now became persecutors themselves. The new laws of the "**Clarendon Code**" pressed hardly on all classes. The principal points were that (i) all magistrates and officials must belong to the Church of England (**Test Act**) ; (ii) only the English Prayer-book and the English Church worship might be used (**Act of Uniformity**) ; (iii) no gatherings in private houses for worship might be held (**Conventicle Act**) ; (iv) Nonconformist ministers might not live within five miles of a town (**Five Mile Act**).

Under these laws many hundreds of the Puritan clergy gave up, or were driven from, their livings ; spies and informers watched for the forbidden prayer meetings, and any one who disobeyed three times was liable to be transported to one of the "plantations," practically to become a slave. This harshness was quite against the King's promise of toleration in his Declaration of Breda, and he tried to induce

Clarendon to take milder steps. We are told that



John Milton in 1670.

(From Gardiner's "Student's History of England.")

"Chancellor Hyde was so hot upon it that His

Majesty was obliged to yield to his importunity." Unlike his brother James, the King had no strong principles and felt that he must not offend Parliament, though he intended to make himself independent of it through the help of the King of France.

Two years after his restoration Charles married the Princess Catherine of Braganza, Infanta of Portugal, who brought with her a large dowry, including Bombay and Tangiers. There was a strong party in Parliament who objected to the King's marriage with a Catholic princess, and many precautions were taken that there should be no revival of Catholic worship. The Queen was allowed to have only one chaplain for her royal chapel, and the number of her foreign attendants was strictly limited. But Catholics could not be otherwise than hopeful since the King, son of a Catholic mother, had married a Catholic wife, and might be expected to protect the Faith and those who held it.

Charles II., however, cared more for amusement and gaiety than for government. It used to be said that "the King played and the duke worked"; for as Lord High Admiral James had all naval matters in his hands. He and his secretary Pepys, whose diary tells us much about the events of these years, not only built and repaired ships but also improved the conditions of the sailors' lot, providing sea-going ships with better food and paying the men's wages more regularly.

Under the grim rule of Cromwell and the joyless creed of the Puritans people had almost forgotten how to be gay. No bells rang (in old times London had been famous for its peals of bells), no music was heard, only dreary singing was permitted in Puritan worship; public amusements and outdoor sports were forbidden. With the Restoration this was quickly altered and people, following the example of the Court, went to the other extreme. The King was in no mind, he declared, "to have mutes about him," and he himself was witty and accomplished. The Queen seconded him in her stately way, and they gave splendid entertainments and revels, in which the gaily dressed ladies hardly outshone the fashionable attire of the courtiers. Instead of visiting the theatre or the halls of noblemen and corporations to see plays performed, like Queen Elizabeth in Shakespeare's day, they themselves acted in "Masques" and Pageants. The poet **Ben Jonson** was a great writer of Masques, but none was so beautiful as that of **Milton**, written some forty years earlier for the Earl of Bridgewater's children. His *Comus* was acted and sung by themselves in the glades of their father's park.

Among the gayest and most splendidly dressed of the courtiers was Buckingham, son of the detested Buckingham, who soon became the King's favourite companion and adviser. He shared, too, in the hunting and shooting of the King and his brother, and in the ball-game learnt in France, "Pêlé-mêle,"

played on the open space near St. James's Palace, the residence of the Duke of York. In winter there was skating, and the rough old English sports of bear-baiting and cock-fighting also had their patronage, to the delight of the London citizens.

The Plague.—The Court and the people were busy enjoying the restoration of amusement and pleasure when the terrible Plague broke out. England was hardly ever free from pestilence and small-pox, through the undrained towns and the dirt of the houses, but this year it raged with greater fury than ever and was worst in London. No one knew how to begin to stop the disease, and all the people who could left London. The King and his Court went to Salisbury, the Duke of York and his household to York ; all the rich fled in their coaches, often carrying the infection with them, and the city was given over to the rumbling of the great carts that collected the dead.

Then there shone out one of the good effects of the stern Puritan training. For almost the only people to try to care for the sick and the dying were the Puritan clergy who had been dispossessed of their livings, and who now went fearlessly among the stricken houses to help and comfort the sufferers. From June to August the plague got worse and worse, till hardly a family was left in whole streets. No longer were separate graves dug, but the bodies were laid together in great pits which were dug in the fields around. Soon some of the city streets

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were grass-grown, they were so deserted, and all business had long been stopped; the shuttered houses and silent spaces showed London a forsaken place.

Mr. John Evelyn, who kept a diary of the time, wrote: "11 October, 1665. I went through the whole city, having occasion to alight out of the coach several times . . . a dreadful prospect." Though the disease was worst in London, through its dirty streets and houses and stagnant ditches, yet it was bad everywhere. The people who fled took it with them, and even in the north of England places were attacked. Outside a village or hamlet where people lay ill there would be placed a hollowed stone with vinegar and water in the dip. In it the money would be placed, and at the foot of the stone any seller brave enough to venture would place the bread or the meal for the starving villagers.

The Great Fire.—The next year, when people were just beginning to return to their deserted homes, there happened the Great Fire, which raged for days through the narrow streets, destroying churches and houses in hundreds. The same writer, Evelyn, says: "2 September, 1666. I saw the whole south part of the city burning from Cheapside to the Thames, and all along Cornhill, Tower St., Fenchurch St. . . . and it was taking hold of St. Paul's Cathedral. . . . All the sky was of a fiery aspect and the light was seen for above forty miles." Thus fell the famous

old Church of St. Paul, which had been admired by many foreign travellers; to be nobly replaced in later years by Sir Christopher Wren, whose dome was as wonderful as the former spire. And, in the rebuilding of London, the streets were made wider, and many houses were built of stone; also some attention was paid to ventilation and to drainage.

It is interesting to read that one of the most popular men at this time was James, Duke of York. He had just returned from leading the English fleet to victory over the Dutch when the Plague emptied London, but the following year he hastened to the capital to help in the rebuilding. Evelyn records the "extraordinary vigilance and activity of the duke, even labouring in person, and being present in order to encourage the workmen." A new fire, which broke out in the Inner Temple, was detected and subdued by him, as captain of the watch, and the prince, who was presently to be blamed as the "author of the Popish Plot which caused the Fire," was for the moment the national hero.

It was at about this time that the King became the special patron of Christ's Hospital, the great school refounded by Edward VI. rather more than a century before. It may have been through the influence of the Lord High Admiral that the King instituted his "Mathematical School" there, for the training of the brighter lads in navigation, a most important study for the men of the fleet which was soon to become the Mistress of the Seas. Another

piece of work which was of great value was the forming of the **Chartered African Trading Company**, which the King established for the sake of English commerce. The Duke of York was its energetic governor, and the Dutch rivalry in trade on the African coast led the English merchants to press for further war with Holland.

Soon it came about that James lost his popularity, partly through the mischievous plots of Buckingham and partly because the duchess, his wife, had become a Catholic. Nothing could have been less expected than this, and James himself was still a staunch Protestant. Unwisely the King and he, as well as the minister Clarendon, tried to keep the matter secret and rumours of all kinds began to fly about. In Parliament there grew up a strong party opposed to Clarendon and he lost his power. The King cared little : his personal friend was Buckingham, and for his advisers he had a little group of ministers. Their government is always remembered by the word formed by the initials of their names, Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, Lauderdale ; and as they managed badly, deceiving both the King and the Parliament, and plotted against each other, the term **Cabal** has since had an ugly meaning. For six years they were in power, and during that time Charles II. took the serious step of making secret promises to Louis XIV. of France, in return for payments of money which made him independent of Parliamentary grants.

Foreign Affairs.—The French King, who meant to be master of Europe, was glad to see England and Holland on unfriendly terms for trade reasons, as he most wished to subdue the Dutch. The great misfortunes of the Plague and the Fire of London interrupted the naval war and the Dutch Admiral de Ruyter sailed up the Thames, firing big guns for the Londoners to hear (1667). But the ministers in



Louis XIV.

(From Bourne's "Medieval History.")

power felt that the growing power of France under her haughty monarch was more dangerous than the rivalry of Holland at sea, and they made an alliance with that country against France (1668). Within two years Charles II. had made his secret treaty with Louis XIV., with the help of some of the Cabal ministers, in which he agreed to fight against Holland in support of France and to restore Catholicism

throughout his kingdom. He also gave up Dunkirk for a sum of money.

So it came about that England joined France in another Dutch war (1672) which was popular in the country, because the English people were still sore about the defiant Dutch in the Thames and the Medway. Again James, Duke of York, was the admiral in command, this time of both the English and French fleets in his flagship *The Prince*; and after a severe tussle off the Suffolk coast chased the enemy ships to Flanders, losing them, however, in a thick fog, so that the Dutch escaped being beaten at sea. From this time on the King accepted payments from Louis XIV. and so was able to do without a Parliament.

Religious Toleration.—We saw that during the first years of the reign of Charles II. his minister, Clarendon, set himself to make the Church of England not only the established, but the only religion. The “Four Acts” pressed as hardly on Catholics as on Puritans and, if the King had felt strongly about it, he would have acted up to his own declaration of 1662 that, “The Roman Catholic subjects have deserved well of us . . . in giving their lives and fortunes for the maintenance of our crown.” Until 1666 the people as a whole were against the Puritanism under which they had suffered so much, rather than against Catholicism. But malicious rumours of a “Popish Plot” were spread about when any misfortune occurred, and one such was that the Papists

had caused the Great Fire. This was even inscribed on the tall monument set up afterwards to commemorate the event.

Charles himself had long been inclined to the Catholic Faith, which was perhaps the reason why he undertook in his secret treaty with Louis XIV. to restore it in England. But his brother had been most strongly opposed, though we cannot know what effect his wife's conversion had had upon his mind. A little while after this the great French marshal, Turenne, under whom James had served, became a Catholic, and in 1672 before he went to sea he himself "withdrew from the communion of the Church of England." But he was well aware of the cost and tried to get permission from the Pope to conform to the Established Church outwardly, a plea which could not be granted. So he bravely avowed his conversion. Suspicion had already fallen upon him for, said the watchers, "like wife, like husband." The duchess died in 1671, leaving two daughters, **Mary** and **Anne**, and these the King insisted on being brought up as Protestants. Meanwhile, he himself continually delayed to fulfil his promise to Louis, declaring that he would do so "at a fitting time." The next year he prepared the way, as he thought, by issuing a "**Declaration of Indulgence**," which would have made Catholics and Puritans alike free to practise their own form of Faith. But the Puritan party in Parliament would have none of it. Rather than see Papists left without persecution they would

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be persecuted themselves. The outcome was the passing of the **Test Act**; and one result of this was that James had to resign his post of Lord High Admiral.

Parliament also tried to prevent his proposed marriage with the Princess Mary of Modena, which the King was anxious to bring about, but their interference came too late. The new Duchess of York was a beautiful girl in her teens, and she held her Court at St. James's Palace as did the King and Queen at Whitehall. She belonged to one of the great Italian families and brought with her an immense dowry.

Parliament followed up their disapproval of the marriage by seeking to expel the Duke of York from the House of Lords and from the Privy Council; and Danby, the Lord Treasurer and a very powerful minister, determined to strengthen the Protestant position by another royal alliance. This was the marriage of James's elder daughter, Mary, with his nephew, **William**, the young **Prince of Orange**, who came over to England, arranged a treaty with the King and his minister against France, and carried off his bride (1677).

The "discovery" of a pretended Popish plot the next year, worked up by a wretched person named Titus Oates, and the false reports he spread about, aroused all the suspicious terror of earlier days, and a perfect panic reigned. It was soon plainly seen that Oates was telling gross untruths, but it was too

late to stop the mischief, fanned as it was by the unscrupulous Ashley (one of the Cabal), Earl of Shaftesbury. From the highest to the lowest, Catholics were pounced upon, banished, imprisoned, or murdered, and any rascal's word was taken against them. James and his wife were sent out of the kingdom and took refuge in Brussels, where Charles II. had himself lived for some time before the Restoration. There they were joined by his daughter Anne, though she, like her sister, was a Protestant.

Still the Parliament went on with their panic legislation. Catholic peers were turned out of the House of Lords, some were imprisoned in the Tower, some heavily fined. A Bill was brought in to exclude the Duke of York from the throne. The leader in this riot of persecution was the Earl of Shaftesbury, who had played a double part in all his public life. While President of the King's Privy Council he was also the Leader of the Opposition in Parliament (1679), and was plotting to have the young Duke of Monmouth succeed to the throne. This brought about his downfall, and he was sent to the Tower to be tried for treason. He escaped and fled to Holland, and the rising he had hoped for took place after his death.

The Last Years.—While the political battle as to whether the Duke of York should or should not succeed to the throne was going on the nicknames Tory and Whig became firmly fixed. Supporters of the King and the duke were the "Tories" (after the

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Irish who would not be reconciled to a Protestant Government), and the "Whigs" (or "Whig-amores"), after a strict sect of Scottish Covenanters, were the Opposition.

To avoid the anti-Papist disturbances in London the King summoned Parliament at Oxford, and in the Hall of Christ Church, where Charles I. had held his Court during the Civil War, the House debated whether the proposal of Charles as to the Succession should be accepted. This was that his brother James should succeed him, but that the Prince of Orange, his Protestant nephew, should be regent. To this the Monmouth party would not agree, and the Parliament was dissolved. For the remaining four years of his reign Charles ruled without a Parliament.

In 1683 a mad plot was formed by some Puritans led by a Cromwellian general, to seize both the King and his brother as they rode from Newmarket to London, at the Rye House. It was discovered and several men, some guilty and some innocent, were executed. The chief effect was to make the King more popular and to stir the flagging loyalty to the reigning house.

Two years later the careless sovereign lay dying. He was received into the Catholic Church by a Benedictine priest who had saved his life at the battle of Worcester, thus at the last making his peace with God :

"Between the stirrup and the ground
Is pardon sought and pardon found."

Ireland after the Restoration.—The Ireland that greeted Charles II. as the King restored to his throne consisted of a prosperous and privileged alien body of settlers of all ranks and degrees, and the remnant of the native people dispossessed of their lands. All united in welcoming the Stewart Restoration, and on the part of the King there was a real intention to “settle” Ireland with justice. But his lack of energy and conscience let him leave too much power to his viceroy, and the restitution of estates to their rightful owners was not carried very far. The Irish Parliament (elected by the Protestant settlers) had but one Catholic member, and its leaders got the ear of the indolent King. To him it was represented that the Catholics were rebels and traitors, and were even then plotting a rebellion; and the Court of Claims, set up to manage the question of estates, handed over vast tracts of land to the great noblemen who governed the country, and paid little heed to the Catholic peers who had lived in exile, or in hovels and garrets for years past. The Presbyterians were angry that an Episcopal Church was established and they had suffered much persecution; the Catholics were alternately oppressed and favoured as the King leant to the counsels of Buckingham, or to those of his brother James.

In the persecution which began through the plotting of Shaftesbury and the mischief of Titus Oates (1678), there was almost a repetition of Cromwellian times. All priests were ordered to leave the

country, all convents and Catholic churches closed; Catholics were hooted and insulted in every town and the prisons were filled with them, arrested on no charge but that of being Catholics. Numbers were executed with every cruelty and, as a final stroke, Oliver Plunket, Archbishop of Armagh and Primate of Ireland, was arrested and brought to London to be tried as a traitor (1679). In spite of the **Habeas Corpus Act**, the aged prelate lay in prison more than six months without trial. When at last he faced his judges, the prisoner was treated with every rudeness and the jury were warned to condemn him. The verdict "Guilty" was given, and the archbishop murmured "**Deo Gratias.**" During the fortnight he lay in prison before his execution he wrote various letters, including one to his young nephew Michael Plunket, a student at the Irish College in Rome. In these letters he gratefully acknowledges the services of all who had done anything for him: "the English Catholics here were most charitable to me; they spared neither money nor toil to relieve me." On July $\frac{1}{12}$, 1680, the Archbishop was dragged on a hurdle from prison to Tyburn, then the place of public executions, and there was hanged in the presence of an enormous number of spectators.

The King remorsefully confessed: "I did not save him, for I dared not." The archbishop's body rests in a simple tomb in Downside Benedictine Abbey Church, and in 1886 the martyr was declared **Venerable** by a decree of Pope Leo XIII.

Scottish Affairs.—Cromwell had forcibly joined Scotland with England as one state in 1654, but with the passing of the Commonwealth and its iron rule the union was ended. The military governor of Scotland, General Monk, was, indeed, the man who had most to do with the recall of Charles II. to his throne. There was a Scottish Parliament established, but the real power was in the hands of Lauderdale, the governor, and the Protestant Archbishop of St. Andrews, with the Scottish Privy Council. These followed the methods of Clarendon in England, to the great discontent of Catholics and Presbyterians alike.

In 1680 Charles II. made his brother James Viceroy of Scotland, and thither the duke took his new consort, Mary of Modena. At Holyrood Palace this Italian princess made acquaintance with the stern severity of an impoverished Scottish Court. While the Shaftesbury party in the English Parliament were busy framing Exclusion Bills to keep him from the throne, James devoted himself to the good government of Scotland; offending the powerful Lauderdale by putting down bribes and fines, but making several progresses about the country and meeting popular welcomes. The historian, Burnet, says that James, "In matters of justice showed an impartial temper and encouraged all propositions relating to trade." Also, for relaxation he played golf. Though himself a Catholic, his Council passed a **Test Act**, like the English one of seven years earlier,

and under it the Duke of Argyll was accused of treason and imprisoned. He escaped to Holland in the dress of a page. Three years later James returned to his brother's court and was present at the marriage of his daughter Anne to Prince George of Denmark, and the government of Scotland was again in the hands of Lauderdale.

When James became King, Argyll led the Scots rebellion against him, but was defeated and executed.

CHAPTER VI

*THE SHORT REIGN OF JAMES II.**Summary.*

ENGLAND		SCOTLAND
James, Duke of York, became King. Monmouth headed a rising to place himself on the throne. He was defeated at Sedgemoor.	1685	The Duke of Argyll led the revolt of the Covenanters and was defeated at Dumbarton.
James, ruling without a Parliament, appointed Catholics as magistrates.	1686	
James issued a Declaration of Indulgence.	1687	
A son and heir was born to the King. The Whigs invited William of Orange to govern the kingdom.	1688	James appointed Balcarres and Dundee to govern Scotland.

The Monmouth Rising.—The new King made no secret of the fact that he would practise his religion, and Protestants were offended with the public celebration of Mass in his chapel at Whitehall. Catholics were equally scandalized that he consented to be crowned by the Protestant Archbishop of Canterbury in Westminster Abbey. At the coronation of himself and his beautiful young Queen, there was an unhappy omen which much distressed her Majesty. The crown, which had been his brother's, did not fit

his head, and had to be steadied by a courtier lest it should fall. But many incidents in the ceremony were pleasing. The royal couple trod upon a blue cloth carpet stretched from Westminster Hall to the



James II.

From the National Portrait Gallery.

(From Gardiner's "Student's History of England.")

Abbey, strewn with flowers and fragrant herbs by gaily-dressed children. The banquet which followed was memorable for the many pretty old customs revived; and an act of the King's immediately

afterwards gave delight to an even greater number of people. This was his command that all prisoners confined for refusing to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy should be liberated. This did not, however, prevent the severe punishment of that arch mischief-maker, Titus Oates, who was in prison awaiting sentence.

Another popular action was the cutting down of the number and expenses of the Tower guards; on the other hand much money was spent in replacing the Crown jewels which had been plundered by the Roundheads. Once, and only once, James II. received payment of the pension from Louis XIV.; this was immediately after he became King. But his protection of the Catholics from persecution led the strong Whigs of Shaftesbury's party to support the young Duke of Monmouth, who was not Charles II.'s lawful son, and had no just claim to the throne. In Scotland the Duke of Argyll placed himself at the head of the Covenanters to oppose the right of James as a Catholic to rule them. But the Scottish Parliament as a whole welcomed his accession, and voted him a larger grant than his brother had received. The English Parliament also protested loyalty and disclaimed Monmouth. Meanwhile, the whole country was in an uproar, and Monmouth in the west of England was the hero of the country people. At Taunton he was proclaimed King, and bands of youths and maidens wove garlands of ribands to deck his progress. But his army had no

trained soldiers, only farmers and labourers armed with scythes and bill-hooks, and the royal troops at Sedgemoor met them and scattered them completely. Their leader was captured, miserable and starving, in a ditch and was executed by order of the King.

Unfortunately, James ordered a certain Judge Jeffreys to visit the countryside and punish the insurgents, and this officer greatly exceeded his commission and seized and hanged hundreds of men. Others were mercilessly flogged and thrown into prison, and many more were transported to the West India plantations as slaves. A few of the more responsible leaders were sent to London and even interviewed by the King. Some of them he pardoned and none were so cruelly treated as under Judge Jeffreys; but this early revolt gave James an excuse for forming a standing army.

The Religious Difficulties.—Though it cannot be said of James II. that he was at that time a man of devout life, he was not lacking in moral courage. Quite openly he appointed Catholic priests to livings and made one the head of an Oxford college; he “dispensed” Catholics from obeying the penal laws, thus placing his royal power above the state—always a dangerous thing for an English King to do. It was at this time that Louis XIV. of France, tired of the religious quarrels in his kingdom, revoked the Edict of Nantes, which had given freedom of worship to Protestants. Numbers of Huguenots (the French Protestants) took refuge in England, and the King

not only befriended them and contributed to their needs from his privy purse, but also publicly regretted the severe action of the French King. This did not prevent the parliamentary Protestants from asserting that James II. intended to do the same and, as a protection, they appealed to his son-in-law, William of Orange, to come over and manage the kingdom. The King was told of this, but refused to believe such treachery of his ministers. In an earlier meeting of his Privy Council, James had declared that in his opinion "no man should be persecuted for conscience' sake, and that it could never be to the interest of a King of England to do so," but in this he found no support. And though various bodies of dissenters were grateful for the more lenient treatment, they could not make their influence felt in Parliament. The King was especially kind to the Society of Friends (or Quakers) who had been persecuted under Charles II., and he consulted William Penn (the founder of Pennsylvania) on various matters connected with his people. Penn's father had been an officer under James, when Duke of York, and fought in his naval battles. This perhaps accounts for the settlement granted to the Quaker exiles in the state of New Jersey, given by Charles II. to the Duke of York some years before.

In the third year of his reign James became determined to hasten the restoration of the Catholic Faith, and he issued a second Declaration of Indulgence, which he ordered to be read from the pulpit

of every church. The Archbishop of Canterbury, Sancroft, and six bishops, refused to ask their clergy to do this, and James sent them to the Tower. This step was very unpopular and, when their case was tried and the judges found them Not Guilty of sedition, all London was wild with joy. The King was dining in camp with the officers at Hounslow, and heard even the soldiers in the regiments cheering the bishops. Bonfires were lighted and processions marched through the streets celebrating this defeat of the royal will.

The King's Foes.—Besides the political parties and the religious malcontents there were others opposed to the King who were nearer and dearer. To say nothing of the Earl of Sunderland, who had professed himself a Catholic and was in the King's confidence, and Sir John Churchill, who was high in command of the army, both of whom were plotting with William of Orange for his invasion of England, James had the unhappiness of finding his daughter Anne against him. Her sister Mary naturally supported her husband, William. The marriage had been arranged by Charles II. (1677) as part of the price of the peace with Holland, though James himself was against it. The Princess Anne had married Prince George of Denmark two years before her father became King, and though her stepmother had always treated her with great kindness she showed much jealousy of her and her position. Queen Mary of Modena was only five years older than the Princess

Anne, beautiful in person and in disposition, and devoted to her husband. The two sisters, daughters of James by his first marriage, wrote letters to each other which kept this unfriendly feeling alive; and as Anne was one of the Queen's ladies, she had many opportunities for mischief-making.

When the public excitement about the seven bishops was at his height the Queen gave birth to a little son, and thus there was a direct heir to the throne. But this was just what the plotters dreaded most, and the Whig leaders decided to act at once. They invited William of Orange to come over, but warned him to bring an army with him to overcome the royal troops. For long the prince had been preparing armed forces for an invasion of England, assuring the English ambassador that they were intended to act against France. Churchill, the English General, was in correspondence with him, and was preparing to transfer regiments to his side when he should land.

All this was going on in secret while bells were rung and rejoicings held and thanksgivings offered in the churches for the birth of the little prince. Addresses were presented to the tiny child lying on a cushion, by the Lord Mayors of London and York and the magistrates of many other cities. Medals were struck to commemorate the event, the portrait of the King on one side and of the Queen on the other; others, the especial symbol of the little Prince of Wales, showed him seated on the shore with ships in

the distance, and on the reverse the arms of England, Scotland, Ireland, and France, with the three feathers of Wales.

Scotland heard the news with great joy, hailing the royal babe as "the Prince Stewart of Scotland," and Edinburgh blazed with bonfires from Arthur's Seat to Canongate. The Lord Provost was sent to London to bear the city's glad congratulations. The University of Oxford celebrated the event in stately fashion, and Dryden, the poet laureate, composed an ode in its honour. Letters of congratulation also came to the King from William, Prince of Orange, to which James, seeing through their insincerity, could not help replying, "I shall always be as kind to you as you have reason to expect." Very reluctantly, too, and ungraciously, his wife, Princess Mary, wrote to the Queen in greeting; but the little half-brother was, of course, an unwelcome arrival, as her husband had been considering himself the next heir to the throne. Evelyn wrote in his diary: "10 June, 1688. A young prince is born, which will cause disputes."

The "young prince," who was christened James Francis Edward, was so delicate for the first months of his life that it was feared he would die. Early in November the "disputes" had taken form, and King James is hastily sending his baby son to Portsmouth, proposing to find him a refuge in France. Next, he is fetching him back to London, for Prince William's invasion is expected every moment, and the officers under Churchill have mutinied. The tiny

traveller was got safely back, escorted by a faithful troop of cavalry, and from Whitehall the Queen and her babe set forth to France. Very unwillingly, for Queen Mary, like some other queens of England before her, wished her consort to fight for his throne. On a Sunday evening, cold and stormy, a coach bore them, with a French count and two nurses, to the Horse Ferry at Westminster, where a boat was waiting. In it they crossed the dark river and sheltered under the shadow of Lambeth Church till a coach and six arrived, in which they travelled to Gravesend. There they embarked on a yacht, where there awaited the Queen a faithful party of attendants and, after a stormy passage, reached Calais safely on a bleak December morning. Years afterwards the Queen related that it was the ninth sea voyage she had made, and "the worst of all." But the baby prince had behaved in an exemplary manner, sleeping peacefully without crying, all the night through.

The French King sent carriages and attendants to show the English Queen every attention and respect, and to take her to one of the royal palaces. She had left England on December 11, and not until more than a week later had she news of the King's safety, while all kinds of disturbing rumours were flying about. Meanwhile, the unfortunate monarch had decided that to resist would cause unnecessary bloodshed and that he would flee. As long as possible he had held out against the conviction that his ministers and his officers were in league against

him. In a Declaration which William of Orange had sent two months before, he said he had been “invited to England by divers lords, spiritual and temporal,” and when James appealed to his council as to the truth of this, all denied it.

In November he had joined his army in the west of England, resolving to meet the invader, but received word from Lord Churchill of his desertion to William. This time-serving officer must have had a moment's shame when one of the Dutch generals observed to him, “You are the first Lieutenant-General I ever heard of who deserted his colours.” A worse blow soon fell on the King. Arriving at Whitehall, ill and worn out, he asked the Princess Anne and her husband to dine with him, and was met with the news that they entirely supported the Prince of Orange, and begged to be excused. He exclaimed, “God help me! My very children have forsaken me!” While the Queen, arriving in France, was torn with anxiety as to the fate of her husband, he in London was equally distressed for her and his infant son. The next day evil tidings poured in apace: risings over the country, the plundering of Catholic churches in London; the building of bonfires with sacred ornaments; the waylaying and capturing of Catholics at the ports; and the rapid approach of William to London. A few days later James rode through London once more as a King, mounted gentlemen around him, bells ringing, and amid cheering crowds.

Later he walked in the Mall with two Scottish noblemen, the Earl of Balcarres and Viscount Dundee. To them he confided that he would not stay to be made a prisoner by his son-in-law, but would leave for France immediately. To Balcarres he gave the charge of civil affairs in Scotland, and to Dundee the command of the troops. It was December 22 when the last of the Stewart kings embarked from Rochester for his exile in France, in a small ship which encountered a rough gale and snowstorms in the Channel. But at length the French coast was reached, and the King set off at once to St. Germain, where his Queen had just arrived, and by the orders of Louis himself a splendid suite of rooms was put at their disposal. The infant Prince of Wales was well and surrounded with every luxury, and handsome gifts arrived each day from the French King; but these could do little to console the royal exiles. What comforted them more was that a few loyal courtiers and servants followed them, among them the Queen's coachman.

On Christmas Day, 1688, William of Orange was at Whitehall, and a Broadsheet, ordering a "Day of Publick Thanksgiving," was published, in that God had made "His Highness the Prince of Orange the glorious Instrument of the Great Deliverance of this Kingdom from Popery and arbitrary Power." Evelyn wrote in his diary on February 21, 1689: "This day were William and Mary proclaimed King and Queen with great acclamation and general good reception. Bonfires, bells, guns, etc."

CHAPTER VII

ENGLISH LIFE IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

Social Life in the Stewart Period.—The great nobles and aristocratic families who held posts at the Court were accustomed to live part of the year in London and part on their estates in the country ; but the squires and country gentlemen rarely left their homes. Their houses were centres of hospitality ; they themselves served as magistrates and were practically independent in their own districts ; their amusements were hunting, shooting, and snaring waterfowl, which still abounded in the many marshes of undrained England. Their ladies were clever housewives and occupied themselves in all domestic duties, adding the knowledge of medicines and the treatment of ailments to their housekeeping.

By degrees the open spaces of pasture and common land were being enclosed, and tenant-farmers and yeomen owned or rented small farms and were well-to-do, though they lived simply and roughly. The large class of farm labourers often lived in their masters' houses, and only when they married had cottages of their own. Some of the younger and more adventurous spirits would make

their way to the towns and become apprentices to traders and craftsmen, but, as a rule, people stayed where they were born and did the work their parents had done before them. The local governments of the towns were very watchful as to admitting "foreigners," that is, men born outside their districts, and no business could be set up except by a "free-



A citizen.



A citizen's wife.

Ordinary civil costume *temp.* Charles I.

From Speed's map of "The Kingdom of England," 1646.

(From Gardiner's "Student's History of England.")

man" of the town. We are sometimes reminded of this old exclusiveness when we read of an important person having the "freedom" of a city bestowed on him.

London, though very small compared with its size in later days, was one of the important cities of Europe. It was the seat of government, the principal residence of the sovereigns, and a great port and

centre of trade. Its houses were picturesque but insanitary, its streets narrow and uncleansed, its drainage the brooks and ditches which wandered down to the Thames. The Londoners were a busy and energetic set of people, proud of their capital, of their trade, and of their independence. They still lived largely an out-of-door life, and easily collected into crowds and cheered or hooted public characters. Also they were easily stirred up into making riots and disturbances, which were fostered by the public sermons and speeches made by religious or political leaders; and by the public punishments of pillory, stocks, and whipping often inflicted.

Besides the taverns, which had been famous in Queen Elizabeth's day, there were also coffee-houses, which were meeting-places for the hearing of news and discussion and gossip about the events of the day. Singing and music were favourite amusements at home, and abroad there were the theatres where plays and masques were performed. Under the Commonwealth all gaiety and amusements were sternly put down and, indeed, the times were so grim that people had little heart for holidays. With the Restoration and the removal of the strict laws there was an extravagant outburst of merry-making, in which Charles II. and his Court led the way.

From the diary of Pepys, who was Secretary to James, Duke of York, then High Admiral, we learn many details of the life and pursuits of the men and women of the day. After office hours he would dress

himself elaborately and visit the theatre, or go to a concert at the house of a friend. He himself could play three instruments—the viol, the lute, and the flageolet—and to be able to sing, to play, and to compose verses were ordinary accomplishments.

One feature of the period, which seems strange to us now, was that men's dress was even more gay and



A gentleman.



A gentlewoman.

Ordinary civil costume *temp.* Charles I.

From Speed's map of "The Kingdom of England," 1646.

(From Gardiner's "Student's History of England.")

elaborate than that of ladies. Pepys, as a government official, would be more soberly dressed than the Court gentlemen, who wore silk stockings and long pointed shoes, velvet or satin knee-breeches, embroidered vests, and tailed coats with "panels" embroidered in colours. They wore their hair long, plaited or curled and heavily powdered, and tied with broad bright ribbon. A feathered hat, long

BOOK V.—PUPIL'S

cane, and a large muff completed the full-dress costume. One entry in Pepys's diary says: "Nov. 29. Lord's day. This morning I put on my best black cloth suit trimmed with scarlet ribbon, very neat, with my cloak lined with velvet, and a new beaver, which altogether is very noble."

We also learn something of Mrs. Pepys's dress, which was heavy and substantial, and followed at a distance the fashions set by great ladies. The Courts of the Queens Henrietta Maria, Catherine of Braganza, and Mary of Modena had in them foreign attendants, who introduced something of French and Italian grace. Long-waisted gowns, stiffened out, though not yet with "hoops," high head-dresses, and dainty high-heeled shoes were worn, and a long-handled fan carried. A courtier's management of his cane and a lady's of her fan were points that received great attention. One thing that can be said for elaborate dress is that it helped to bring in more dignified manners. The old laws of Edward III. still forbade the copying too closely in materials or style of the dress of a superior class. Scattered among the more usual costumes were the simple grey suits of the Puritans, the men with their broad hats, cropped heads, and flowing collars, and the women with their plain skirts, folded kerchief crossed in front, and hood covering the hair. The Society of Friends maintained this sober style and absence of bright colours in dress until quite recent years.

Literature of the Period.—To the seventeenth

century belong the names of several great English writers. Ben Jonson was the composer of many plays and masques, and the leader of a group of young poets. Much verse was written and is still remembered and sung. Richard Lovelace, one of the Cavalier poets, who was imprisoned during the Commonwealth, sang high-heartedly :

“ Stone walls do not a prison make
Nor iron bars a cage ;
Minds innocent and quiet take
That for an hermitage.
If I have freedom in my love
And in my soul am free,
Angels alone that soar above
Enjoy such liberty.”

There was Robert Herrick, a country clergyman who lost his benefice at the beginning of the Civil War ; author of *Cherry Ripe* and other dainty lyrics. He greeted the birth of Prince Charles (afterwards Charles II.) with a “ Pastoral ” which was set to music and sung before the Court. Prettily a shepherd tells his companions :

“ Three days before the shutting-in of May
(With whitest wool be ever crowned that day !)
To all our joy, a sweet-faced child was born,
More tender than the childhood of the morn.”

George Herbert, another country clergyman, was one of many writers of sacred verse. Often he chose strange titles and employed fanciful images, but his devotional poems are beautiful and his ingenious

use of the ideas of the day is most pleasing. In a couplet he preserves for us the fashion of making anagrams, always popular with those just beginning to love reading :

“ Mary : Army : ”

“ How well her name an Army doth present
In whom the Lord of Hosts did pitch His tent ! ”

Chief of all the poets was Milton, born in Bread Street, Cheapside, in 1608. He was grandson to a Catholic, but his father adopted the reformed religion. As a lad John Milton attended St. Paul's School and was a most eager pupil. When only sixteen he entered Christ's College, Cambridge, and, like all young men at the Universities, wrote poems on every occasion. His fine *Ode on the Morning of Christ's Nativity* was written just after he had finished his college course. After some quiet years at home (his father now lived in the country), in which he wrote most of his shorter poems, including *Lycidas*, an elegy on the friend of his student days, he became strongly interested in politics and wrote various tracts on government in Church and State. He argued so well against the Stewart ways of ruling that under the Commonwealth he was secretary to Cromwell's Council of State. But he never forgot his youthful resolve to write a great poem, and after the Restoration he was able to fulfil it. Though more than fifty years of age and blind, so that he was dependent upon his daughters for reading and writing,

he composed the great epic story, *Paradise Lost*. It came out in 1667 in a small volume, price 3s. 6d.

Though the subject is so far removed from the life of his day, the warlike times through which he had lived and the immense interest taken in battles and armour and military matters generally are shown in Milton's close descriptions of the War in Heaven; and his mastery of argument in the long discussions of Satan and his councillors.

Another book, even more widely read, which belongs to this period is *The Pilgrim's Progress*. Its author, John Bunyan, unlike the scholarly Milton, was an untaught man; but he had thought a great deal. He was imprisoned in Bedford gaol for many years and there composed, if not yet able to write it, his great allegory. He was not among the political and religious offenders released at the Accession of Charles II., but when the King issued his Declaration of Indulgence in 1672, Bunyan was set free to resume his wayside preaching. He also wrote some short poems for boys and girls, which he called *Divine Emblems*, in which he shows the spiritual meaning under material and quite humble things. They were valued at the time, but have long ceased to be read in the wealth of books which children have had provided for them in later days.

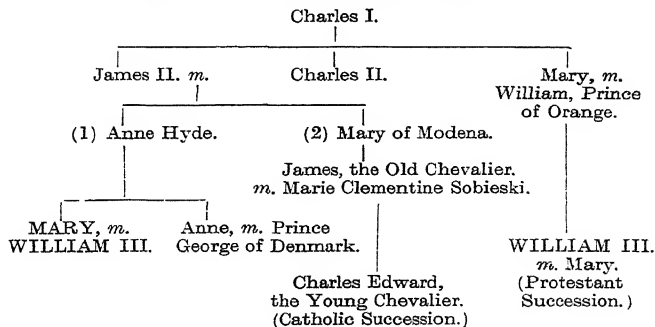
Late in the reign of Charles II. there appeared the first of the many "Jacobite" songs, composed by unknown writers, and set to delightful and stirring tunes which remind us even to-day of the popular

love and devotion to the House of Stewart. It was written when the King's Declaration of Indulgence permitted the Duke of York to become Lord High Admiral again. One of the verses runs :

“ Jamie, who quelled the proud foe on the ocean,
And rode the sole conqueror over the main ;
To this gallant hero let all pay devotion,
For England her Admiral sees him again.”

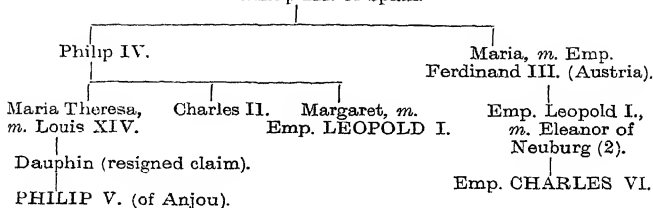
The poet, Dryden, who wrote an elegy on the death of Oliver Cromwell, became a Catholic and lived to be Poet Laureate under James II. He wrote a political poem called *Absalom and Achitophel*, which, under the guise of Old Testament history, exposed the tricks of Shaftesbury and others to prevent the Duke of York succeeding to the throne. But he is remembered now chiefly for his magnificent Odes and for his defence of the Catholic Church in a curious parable-poem, *The Hind and the Panther*.

THE COMPROMISE SUCCESSION



THE SPANISH SUCCESSION

Philip III. of Spain.



Questions and Exercises

COMMONWEALTH AND RESTORATION.

1. Suppose Charles II. is telling a French prince of his adventures in escaping from England; write down *four* of his narrow escapes.
2. Describe some of the things that Cromwell did to show how he tried to govern the country.
3. What were: (1) Martial law; (2) "Levellers"; (3) the Navigation Act?
4. Who were: (1) Lord Clarendon; (2) Samuel Pepys; (3) Titus Oates?
5. Write something about the Fire of London, *or* The Dutch in the Thames.
6. What do the words "Whig" and "Tory" mean? Write something interesting about "Nicknames."

CHAPTER VIII

THE REVOLUTION AND AFTER

Summary.

ENGLAND		SCOTLAND
William III. and Mary were declared joint sovereigns.	1688	
The sovereigns accepted the Declaration of Right.	1689	The Scottish Highlands rose under Dundee for James II., and were defeated at the battle of Killiecrankie.
James II. landed in Ireland.		
The Jacobites were defeated at Londonderry and Newtown Butler.		
William III. took command in Ireland and won the Battle of the Boyne.	1690	
With the fall of Limerick the Jacobites were finally defeated.	1691	In the Settlement of Scotland the Massacre of Glencoe took place.
Catholic penal laws were passed for Ireland.	1692	In war with France the French fleet was defeated at La Hogue.
Queen Mary died.	1694	A Vicar-Apostolic was appointed for Scotland.
The Bank of England was founded.		
Peace was made with France in <i>Treaty of Ryswick</i> .	1697 1700	
The Act of Settlement was passed.	1701	By Act of Parliament all priests were banished.
William III. died.	1702	James II. died.

The Jacobite Risings.—This reign and the next are sometimes called the Stopgap reigns, and the change

which brought them about, the Bloodless Revolution. It is true that it took place without war in England, but in Scotland and Ireland a strong stand was made against "Dutch William." The party responsible carefully arranged that the Prince of Orange should not be sole King. They linked with him his wife, who became not Queen Consort but Queen



William III.

(From Gardiner's "Outlines of English History.")

Regnant. This helped to pacify the Tories, who, many of them, had opposed James II. for his ways of governing, but who supported the Stewart royal house. Some among them, indeed, desired Mary to be the reigning sovereign and her husband the Prince Consort; and she herself seems to have expected it. In her disappointment (she tells in her memoirs) she affected a gaiety she was far from feeling; a gaiety

which shocked some of those who saw her arrival at Whitehall Palace, and her excited "runnings about and handling of the ornaments and coverings."

And there were many people who were not at all satisfied. Among them was the Archbishop of Canterbury, who had been imprisoned by James in the matter of the Declaration of Indulgence. This fearless prelate, on reading William's announcement, issued one himself. William had declared himself, "invited by several English Lords, spiritual and temporal," and Sancroft wrote: "I, William, Bishop of Canterbury, do profess and declare that I never gave him any such invitation, by word, writing, or otherwise." The archbishop also reproved Queen Mary, when she asked for his blessing, for her conduct towards her father. The new King was well aware that many people were opposed to him, and was very careful to stir up no strong feeling. Those who still held to King James were known as Jacobites (Lat. *Jacobus*, James).

In Scotland the Presbyterians declared for King William; the Highlanders rallied to the call of **Dundee, Graham of Claverhouse**, friend and loyal supporter of James II., and "broke" so many heads of their opponents, that they swept the English soldiers before them, shouting their war-cry to the skirling of their pipes. At **Killiecrankie** their gallant leader was shot in the moment of victory and, to his question as he lay dying, "How goes the day?" they told him, "Well for the King, but sorely for

your lordship." "No matter that," he replied, "if it is well for him." Those few words sum up the convictions of hundreds of loyal hearts who, in the days to come, held lightly all losses in upholding the Stewart cause. But then, with their leader gone, the brave fighters could do little and William's army routed them (1689).

Soon the clans were bidden to take the oath of allegiance by a certain date, and chief after chief presented himself. One, however, Macdonald of Glencoe, came late, and was not allowed to swear. Instead, the Scottish Governor, who was strongly against any Jacobite feeling, set himself to carry out the King's order to "exterminate" any clan which had not acknowledged him by the given day. A band of soldiers was sent to the lonely vale and were housed and fed by the clansmen; then in the night uprose and killed their hosts in cold blood. The shameful deed so embittered the Highlanders that they hated the English rule; and soon the men of the Lowlands were discontented on account of the unfair trade-laws. These forbade the sending out of Scottish goods in any but English ships, and all merchandise sent to England was taxed. The country was poor, the population small, and "men, in trying to make each other Episcopalians or Presbyterians, had almost ceased to be Christians."

In Ireland all the Catholics were Jacobites and made no pretence for a moment of accepting William, and in March, 1689, Tyrconnel had raised an army of

between 30,000 and 40,000 men. But they were not well armed and had few horses, while the Protestant troops were well equipped. General Schomberg, a French Huguenot, once a fellow-soldier with James



Mary II.

From the Picture by Netscher in the National Portrait Gallery.

(From Tout's "*A History of Great Britain.*" Book II.)

himself when he fought under Turenne, was in command of the Ulster troops. James II. determined to place himself at the head of the loyal Irish, and set sail from Brest with the sword and the good

wishes of Louis XIV. After six months' fighting in which, on the whole, James had the advantage, there was a lull for the winter. In the spring things were against him. His chief general was the Count de Lauzun (who had escorted the Queen and the baby prince in their escape to France) and they were not agreed as to the best time and method of attacking. In the summer William himself joined his army, and the two Kings were face to face in the battle of the Boyne, which ended in complete defeat for James II.

He soon returned to France leaving Lauzun to carry on the war, but no real stand could be made against William's armies, made up of English, Dutch, and Danish troops. The siege of Londonderry and the siege of Limerick, the one maintained by Protestants, the other by Catholics, figure in history as examples of splendid endurance, and the latter won for the defenders all the honours of war. A **Treaty** promised Catholics the rights and privileges granted them by Charles II., but the first Protestant Parliament held (1695) would not abide by it, and severe penal laws were again passed.

The King and his Parliament.—William III. cared for his kingdom of England only so far as it was useful to him in defying France. He had been much displeased with the Parliament which put him on the throne for the little power it left to him, but dared not thwart it. At first he chose his ministers from both Whig and Tory, but that plan was unsatisfactory so that the Whigs alone ruled after 1691.

The few chosen advisers were called the **Cabinet**, and two important pieces of work were undertaken :

1. A law that Parliament must be elected anew every three years (**Triennial Act**).

2. The foundation of the Bank of England (1694).

This was the idea of a clear-headed Scotsman, and put an end to the old practice of the King borrowing money from the "goldsmiths," or anybody who would find it. The Bank was to take charge of all the money raised by taxes or loans, and lend it to the Government. And to make the Bank safe the Government was to stand by it and support it with the whole nation's credit. So that, unless the whole country became "bankrupt," the Bank could not fail ; and the description "as safe as the Bank of England" shows how secure it is felt to be.

Though the open revolts against William III. were in Scotland and Ireland, there were petty secret ones in England, and even among the men in the Government. One who was mixed up in a plot was Churchill, the commander who had welcomed the new King in 1688. He and his wife were great friends with the Princess Anne and her husband, and Lady Churchill, a very determined and able woman, could do what she liked with the princess. When the plot was found out Churchill was removed from his post, and Princess Anne herself was banished from Court for a time, because she would not give up her friendship with his wife.

A result of the Jacobite plots was the making of

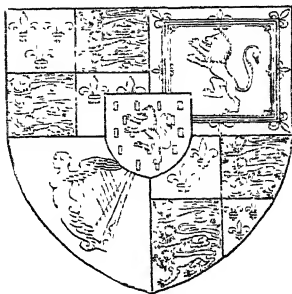
the law of treason stricter; and as nearly all Jacobites were Catholics it was supposed that all Catholics were Jacobites, and the penal laws were more harshly pressed. The Toleration Act which the King had sanctioned gave freedom only to the Protestant party. Tyburn, where the road to Edgeware joins the great west highway from London to Uxbridge, remained the place for public executions, and in 1691 a certain Richard Ashton, formerly an official in the Court of Queen Mary of Modena, was executed there for being a Jacobite. Peers were imprisoned in the Tower and Lord Dartmouth died there. The Tories in Parliament were always suspicious of William III., even if they did not want James back again, and there were some who were plotting with the exiled King and his ministers, just as the Whigs had formerly plotted with William of Orange while James was reigning. Every one knew that the King's first interest was Holland, and that he cared for England only as providing him with means to continue the war against Louis XIV. Hence one clause in the Act of Settlement was that "the King must not leave England without consent of Parliament, or force England to go to war in defence of a foreign country."

Foreign Affairs.—During these years the masterful policy of Louis XIV. was a danger to England no less than to Spain and the Netherlands. His support of the Stewart cause was one of the ways in which he tried to give William III. "something else to think

about " than leading his continental armies against France. That country had a large army and a fine navy, and while William III. was painfully holding his own in the war by land the French admiral set out to fight the English fleet and invade England. From a high fortress on the coast James II. watched the sea-battle, his sympathies largely with the brave English sailors whom he had once commanded. The English won a great victory over the French fleet at **La Hogue** (1692), and prevented Louis XIV. from sending any useful help to the Irish Jacobites.

The war on land ended in 1695 and, by the **Treaty of Ryswick**, Louis was required to give up the cause of James II. and no longer to shelter him in France. However, he remained at

St. Germain's, broken in health and living a very retired life, sad and penitent for all his early wrongdoings. His young son, **James Francis Edward**, was now (1697) ten years old, a serious, attractive lad who, with his sister two years younger, had been trained in all princely ways. William III. more than once proposed to the exiled King that, in return for freedom from Jacobite plots during his reign, he should



Royal Arms as borne by
William III.

(From Gardner's "Student's History
of England.")

recognize James, Prince of Wales, as his heir. But to this James II. would never agree and, though he made no further efforts and discouraged the English Jacobites from active steps, he firmly held himself to be rightful King of England. The actual holder of the throne, William III., was, however, by this time master of Europe. He was a most able soldier, never afraid, never baffled by difficulties; prepared to fight or to bribe opponents, and always to work his will. After defeating France and the French King's ambitions, we see him next helping him to "partition" the dominions of the aged King of Spain. This led to the War of the Spanish Succession.

Throne and People.—The royal couple, William and Mary, had no children, and Princess Anne lost her last child and only boy in 1700. Queen Mary had died a few years before, and her stern and silent husband felt her death most deeply. He became more grim and unsmiling than ever and, as he had never been popular, he was in no way surprised at the strong Jacobite feeling in his Court and among his ministers. There had come about a reconciliation with the Princess Anne, and she was the acknowledged heir to the throne. By the new Act of Settlement (1701) after her death the crown was to pass to the next Protestant descendant of James I. This was the Electress **Sophia of Hanover**, but both she and Princess Anne were immensely interested in the young exile, "*le pauvre prince de Galles*," and felt

inclined to recognize him as the next heir to the throne.

In the same year James II. died, and in spite of the **Treaty of Ryswick** Louis XIV. acknowledged his son James Francis Edward as King of England. If he had declared James to be next rightful heir, many would have been content, but both Whigs and Tories felt that to pronounce him King was too dangerous, so preparations were made for another war with France. Also William III. induced Parliament to pass a Bill of Attainder on the young prince, condemning him as a traitor and liable to be executed without trial if he fell into William's power. Meanwhile the King wore mourning for the dead James, and ordered the same for his Court and servants.

Queen Mary of Modena, in France, was made Regent for the young James III., and to her came messengers from Scotland, the "Lords of Convention" of the "Dundee" song, offering him the crown if he would become a Protestant. But neither then nor at any later time did James fail to observe his father's dying words to remain true to his religion. In correspondence with her, too, was the faithless general, Churchill, soon to become the most powerful minister in England.

William III. was hastening on his preparations for war with France, and Parliament had passed a Bill requiring all state officials to swear to "abjure" James Stewart, when he met his death through an accident. His horse stumbled over a molehill and

the King was so seriously hurt that he never recovered. His last act was to write a tottering signature to the Bill of Abjuration. The Princess Anne was at once proclaimed Queen in England, but in Scotland the accession of the young prince was announced as James VIII.; and everywhere at Jacobite dinner tables was drunk the naughty "toast," "To the little gentleman in black velvet!"

We must remember that all this time the ministers and the Parliament hardly at all represented the will of the people. Very few of the population were allowed to vote for their representatives in Parliament, and the voting itself was so managed that a powerful and unscrupulous person could always find supporters for the candidate he wished to get in.

CHAPTER IX

QUEEN ANNE

Summary.

ENGLAND		SCOTLAND
Anne, second daughter of James II., became Queen.	1702	James Stewart was proclaimed King in Scotland as James VIII.
	1703	Scottish Parliament passed an Act of Security. A census of Catholics was taken by order of Royal Proclamation (1704).
Marlborough won victories in the Low Countries.	1706–	
By the Act of Union England and Scotland became one Kingdom.	1710	
	1707	
War with France ended with the Treaty of Utrecht.	1708	James Stewart sailed for Scotland, but could accomplish nothing.
Queen Anne died.	1713	
	1714	

England and Scotland United.—This short reign is distinguished in history as the period when England and Scotland became one kingdom. It came about through the resolute action of the Scots Parliament. The Scots were willing enough to have Anne for Sovereign, but determined that in future they would choose their own sovereigns; hence they passed what was called an **Act of Security** which declared that they would not have the same ruler as England.

We cannot wonder at this, apart from the strong feeling for the Stewarts, as the English Government had hampered their trade, and their religion was constantly threatened. William III. had tried to win over part of Scotland by promising the bishops (the Episcopal Church) support against the "preachers" (the Presbyterians). There was a strong party in favour of the union when the treaty was being drawn up, chiefly Episcopalians and the Lowland traders; and the proposed Act was to leave Scotland (i) her own system of law (which differs in many points from the English), (ii) the Presbyterian form of Church government, and (iii) commercial independence. Thus it was hoped to win the whole nation.

But there was great discontent in many quarters both on the "fatal 1st of May" and later, when the more daring spirits tried to break the "Sorrowful Union." The sad anniversary was spoken of as "a Day never to be forgot . . . in which the Scots were stripped of what their predecessors had gallantly maintained for many hundred years." But the Union stood, and henceforth we speak of the Kingdom of Great Britain and of the British people.

Meanwhile, at St. Germain's, James Stewart had reached his majority (eighteen years of age) and was provided with a Court of his own, though he always paid the greatest deference to the wishes and counsels of his gifted mother. Queen Mary of Modena had around her Scottish and English Jacobites, some

sincere, some not; and these now became the advisers of James. Bishop Fénelon and other responsible men thought highly of the young King's character: "affable, prudent, self-reliant, courageous, and full of dignity without haughtiness." He, like his father, depended upon the help of the King of France, which was promised but was slow in taking any useful form. The exiles were much cramped for money, as the dowry of Queen Mary of Modena had been retained by William III.'s Government, and though the Treaty of Ryswick had arranged for the payment of a yearly sum the promise had not been kept.

In 1708 as a result of the discontent provoked by the Act of Union, it was arranged that James Stewart should go to Scotland and claim the throne. Misfortune dogged the project from the first. The small fleet under the French admiral encountered a furious gale and had to put back, the delay giving time for the English ships, under Admiral Byng, to arrive. James himself was taken ill, but insisted upon being carried on board at Dunkirk, and a week later reached the Scottish coast. The French admiral, who was half-hearted in the matter, fought an engagement with the English warships, and then refused to land the troops or their leader, but made for France. A dead calm was as much against them as the storms had been on setting out. One of the peers in attendance wrote: "We were eight days agoing to Scotland, we were a fortnight coming back."

Disappointed and mortified James asked permission of Louis to fight in his army and, as the Chevalier of St. George, he joined the forces of the Duke of Burgundy. At Oudenarde and at Malplaquet, the scenes of two of Marlborough's noted



Duke of Marlborough (1650-1722).

After a Painting by Jan Wyck in the National Portrait Gallery.

(From Tout's "*A History of Great Britain.*" Book II.)

victories, a young officer in the French army was known to be "the Prince of Wales," and much interest was shown by the English captains. He fought through the rest of the campaign, at Brussels, Lisle, and Mons, where in the severe weather "the horses' hoofs froze to the ground," and returned to

St. Germain's invalidated just before the Peace. One of the terms of the **Treaty of Utrecht** was that James should quit France; also another, that his mother's jointure should be paid.

The Foreign War.—With Queen Anne on the throne, the Tories in power, and every one fearing France, the war in the Netherlands against that country and Spain was at first popular. Churchill, afterwards Duke of Marlborough, was commander of the Dutch and English armies, and Admiral Rooke head of the navy. There were many battles fought by sea and land: Admiral Rooke captured Gibraltar, and Marlborough won four great victories in Bavaria and the Low Countries. This general was not only a fine soldier but also a clever statesman, and when he was not actually fighting he was acting as the Queen's chief minister. His wife, the Duchess Sarah, was close beside the Queen, and ruled her completely; she was a beautiful woman and of strong character, but stormy tempered and domineering. The Queen and she were such friends that they dropped the stately Court ceremonial and were plain "Mistress Freeman" and "Mistress Morley" to each other.

The Queen's husband, Prince George of Denmark, was a person of no importance in the Government. He sat in the House of Lords and listened to the dull discussions or the angry disagreements between the Whig lords and the Tory counsellors of the Queen. For, in spite of the victories, even the Tories were

getting tired of the expense of the foreign war, and the Whigs had never been really keen about it. The Duchess Sarah stood up passionately for whatever her husband wished or did, but spoke so hotly that she offended the Queen and the strange friendship



Sarah Jennings, Duchess of Marlborough.
From a Portrait in the National Portrait Gallery.

(From Tout's "*A History of Great Britain.*" Book II.)

was broken. The duke himself was suspected of using privately the money provided for the army, and was disgraced. In 1713 a Treaty made at Utrecht, a famous city of Flanders, ended the long quarrel about the Spanish Succession, and once again

Louis XIV. promised to recognize Queen Anne and to cease to support James Edward Stewart.

The England of Queen Anne.—In many ways the reign of Queen Anne saw the beginning of modern life. The greater comfort of houses (chimneys were becoming quite usual), the greater number of books and of people able to read, and the restored love of singing and music led to the habit of home-life for which the British people have since become noted. There were still plenty of outdoor amusements, rough sports to be played, fashionable gardens to be visited by fine ladies and men in gay attire, and the coffee-houses. These were the early forerunners of the clubs of modern times, and there flocked politicians and writers and gossips. There were the theatres, too, and for concerts people met in each other's houses and sang to "concerted" accompaniments by players on various instruments. The harpsichord, or clavierchord, a tinkling ancestor of the piano, was very popular, and the harp was the queen of stringed instruments.

Communication was still slow and difficult, for roads were bad and highwaymen waylaid travellers on the heaths outside London. Rich people travelled in their own coaches or chaises, with relays of horses at various inns on the road; merchants and traders sent their messengers by the stage-coaches; while occasional wagons fitted with rough seats, carried poorer people. An old hand-bill early in the Queen's reign announced that:

“ The York Four Days Stage Coach
Begins
on Friday April 12. 1706. starting from
The Black Swann Holborn
in London
and from Coney Street York
every Monday Wednesday and Friday
and performing the Journey in
Four Days (if God permits)
And sets forth at Five in the morning.”

Like her predecessor, Elizabeth, Queen Anne was fond of travelling, so that it became fashionable. Seaside places were not yet popular, but the “ watering-places,” where wells of mineral waters gave a nasty-tasting but wholesome medicine, were much visited. Epsom and Malvern and Bath were favourite haunts and, through the Queen’s visits to that place, Bath became a handsome, clean, well-drained city before London.

The building of attractive houses and the making of beautiful furniture led to great improvements in both, and they have been copied in our own day. Until then there was very little furniture in the houses ; the long central table and a few stools had been the chief articles. Little Dutch tables and the blue “ delft ” bowls of Holland came in during the reign of Queen Mary just before.

The Last Days of Queen Anne.—Like her sister Mary, the Queen was kind-hearted and, while the one

had made over the old royal palace of Greenwich to the disabled sailors and soldiers of the wars, the other remembered the poor clergy and created a fund or "bounty" which still bears her name, to relieve cases of great need. Her faithful devotion to the Church of England, and her gracious manners



Peter the Great.

(From Bourne's "*Medieval History*.")

and goodness won for her the title, "Good Queen Anne." In her latter years she had sorely regretted the part which she and her sister had played towards their father, James II., and her bitter jealousy of her young half-brother. Her ministers recognized that she felt so kindly towards him that she would rather have had James Stewart succeed her than any of the Hanoverian family. Two important Scottish

boroughs even sent the Queen "An Address from the Highlanders of Scotland to the Queen, to dispose of everything so that her brother may succeed her."

But the days were gone when a sovereign of England could appoint an heir, and though her ministers could not induce the Queen to receive any of the Electress Sophia's family, the Parliament compelled her to send to the Duke of Lorraine, where James Stewart was residing, asking him "to remove to a greater distance the person who pretends to a right to my crown." Worn out and ill, she died in August, 1714. There was no public uprising, though the spirited Bishop of Rochester offered to head a procession and proclaim "James III. King" at Charing Cross. The Hanoverian Ambassador wrote to his friend: "The Queen died this morning. Our master was proclaimed without difficulty. I wish we may soon have him here."

Questions and Exercises

JAMES II., WILLIAM III., ANNE.

1. What happened at (1) Taunton; (2) Sedgemoor; (3) the Boyne; (4) Glencoe?
2. Would you have been on the side of James II. or William of Orange in 1688?
3. What had France to do with England during these two reigns?
4. Why do we say "British" instead of "English" after 1707?
5. Write a short account of "England under Queen Anne."
6. What great battles were fought during Queen Anne's reign? Who was the Commander of the English and Dutch armies?

Useful Reference Books for Period 1660-1714

Highroads of Empire History, Bk. viii. (Wilmot-Buxton).
Macaulay's *Essays on Addison, Bunyan*.

Addison's *Spectator* papers : *Sir Roger de Coverley*.

Evelyn's Diary (1660-90).

Pepys's Diary (1660-69)

Scott's Novels : *Peveul of the Peak* (1660-69).

Episodes suitable for Class Acting

1. Parts of Milton's *Comus*.
2. Charles II. visiting Christ's Hospital.
3. The Venerable Archbishop Plunket writing letters in prison
4. The Coronation of James II. and his Queen.
5. Queen Mary of Modena escaping with the baby prince.
6. William Penn making a treaty with the Indians (*Highroads of Empire*, Bk. viii.).

CHAPTER X

THE HANOVERIAN KINGS

Summary.

ENGLAND		SCOTLAND
George I. became King.	1714	
A Jacobite rising took place in the north and was defeated at Preston.	1715	The Earl of Mar proclaimed James VIII. King of Scotland. The Duke of Argyll led the
Severe laws were enforced against Catholics.	1716	Scottish forces against the Highlanders. James landed in Scotland.
Robert Walpole became Prime Minister.	1720	James married Princess Marie Clementine Sobieski.
George I. died and his son George II. became King.	1721	Prince Charles Edward was born in Rome.
Great Britain took part in the foreign war.	1727	
	1739	
	1745	Prince Charles Edward landed in Scotland.
	1746	He was defeated at the battle of Culloden.

The New Line of Sovereigns.—The Elector George of Hanover, the nearest Protestant descendant of James I., was named in the Act of Settlement as successor to Queen Anne who, though she had had thirteen children had none left alive. In September, 1714, George I. arrived in England, an elderly man of harsh temper and forbidding appearance, accompanied by his soldier son, who was at once made Prince of Wales. His wife, with whom he was much

displeased, he left shut up in a gloomy castle. The Archbishop of Canterbury and some Whig ministers met the King at Greenwich, and a state entry into London took place two weeks later. No one showed enthusiasm, and though there were government illuminations and fireworks, there were also shouts in the streets of "No Hanover!" "St. George for England!" The King knew that he must expect a mixed welcome and was prepared for it; he at once surrounded himself with Whig ministers and they set themselves to control popular opinion.

At the Coronation there were riots and disturbances all over the country. Devonshire openly cheered "James III.," Bristol and York were in a ferment, and there were mobs in Pall Mall. The clergy had to be sternly commanded to read the prayers for the new sovereign, and soon a "**Riot Act**" was passed to put down public gatherings. The feeling had not died down by April. In London Cromwell, William III., and George I. were burnt in effigy, great bonfires blazed everywhere, and the popular toast was "The Chevalier St. George." But the Whig ministers thought they were doing the best thing for the country; they had the ear of the King, as far as they could make him understand. But he knew no English, and would not trouble to learn the language of his new realm, and they knew no German. Hence the conversations had to be carried on in rusty Latin.

The Court became an unattractive place, full of

foreigners who, like the King, could speak only German and, like him, disliked English things and English ways, and cared only for Hanover. The King and his son were on very bad terms and the Prince of Wales set up a rival Court and patronized the opposition ministers. He was first of all a soldier, and had commanded the German regiments under Marlborough in the battle of Oudenarde.

The Jacobite Risings. *The 'Fifteen.*—The English and Scottish Jacobites had just tolerated Queen Anne. She was at least a Stewart and her Tory ministers had leanings towards the old order. But her Keeper of the Great Seal, Viscount Bolingbroke, had been at once displaced by George I. and he was later attainted for treason and fled to the court of James Stewart, where he had the shadowy honour of being made Secretary of State. When the general disgust with the Hanoverian rule became known Jacobite supporters everywhere took heart. The Earl of Mar attended George I.'s *levée* and then went to Scotland and proclaimed "James VIII." King. At the head of the Highlanders, who were always faithful to the Stewart cause, his army met that of the English and Scots Governments, under the Duke of Argyll. An undignified skirmish at Sheriffmuir was the only outcome, in which, as the scoffing Jacobite ballad described it,

" We ran an' they ran
An' they ran an' we ran
An' we ran an' they ran away, mon ! "

On the same day in November, 1715, there was another Scottish defeat at Preston, where many prisoners were taken. A few days later Londoners gazed at the long procession of Scotsmen, pinioned and guarded by Grenadiers, on their way to the Tower and the Newgate and Fleet prisons. Some were executed and the rest sent out to the colonies, of the rank and file; various leaders escaped, some were pardoned the death sentence but lost their estates. The Countess of Nithsdale, by a daring exploit, saved her husband on the very eve of his execution; disguised in her dress the earl passed unchallenged through the gates, and she sat waiting in his cell.

It was after the failures at Sheriffmuir and Preston that James Edward himself appeared in Scotland. Through the divided counsels and hesitation of the leaders those contests had been lost, and from the same lack of unity in his advisers, James was able to accomplish nothing and although at Perth he had been hastily crowned King of Scotland, he returned, a disappointed man, to his retreat at Avignon. Three years later his mother, Queen Mary of Modena, died, and the exiled prince, finding no continental sovereign willing to receive him, went to Rome, where he stayed for the rest of his life. In 1719 he married the Princess Marie Clementine, grand-daughter of the famous **John Sobieski, King of Poland**. They had two sons, Charles Edward (the young Chevalier) and Henry, who became Cardinal

York. James himself took no active steps to win back his throne after the unfortunate ending in 1715, but he steadfastly maintained his claim and brought up his sons in the same conviction.

The Jacobites in England and in Scotland often urged him to conform to the Protestant religion so as to bring both parties to unite, but to this he would never consent. He promised, however, more than once, to permit freedom of worship to Protestants if they recalled him to the throne.

The 'Forty-five.—The Jacobite rising of thirty years later was more carefully planned, made a far greater stir, and nearly succeeded. George II. had succeeded his father and was no more pleasing to the country than George I. had been. But the English people were now accustomed to Parliamentary government, and the Stewart sympathizers were not prepared to risk much in a rising. In Scotland it was different. The Highlanders, who were always faithful, were joined by many of the Lowlanders, who were dissatisfied with the commercial results of the Union. Trade had not improved as it was hoped it would. England was keeping her old advantage and even getting greater; indeed, as some angry patriots declared, England had "swallowed" Scotland.

Jacobites in England had been busy corresponding with James Edward, whose two sons were now grown up and had been carefully taught to believe that one day they would belong to the reigning

house in Great Britain. The elder, Charles Edward, had served in some French and Italian campaigns and Henry, the younger, was still known as the Duke of York and had not yet entered the Church. After many delays and changes of plan, which sorely tried the Young Chevalier, Charles Edward crossed to Scotland in person to take his throne. His spirit and dash raised his tiny band of seven attendants to a troop of 1,600 within a few days of his landing, and their impetuous rush swept the English forces before them at Preston Pans and Falkirk. Nothing less than a march to London was proposed. But at Derby they met a large body of Government soldiers, practised in warfare and well commanded, among them some Hanoverian regiments and some Dutch troops. The Duke of Cumberland, second son of George I., was in command, and his merciless cruelty to the defeated Scots at Culloden won for him the ugly nickname of "Butcher." The young Duke of York was to have joined his brother with a French troop, but it never started, and Prince Henry joined the campaign in Flanders as Count of Albany.

Meanwhile, Charles Edward, after many hair-breadth escapes, reached France in safety, leaving a trail of romantic daring and devoted loyalty on the part of friends and supporters in every rank of life. Though large rewards were offered for his capture, no one would for threat or bribe betray him. But he was a changed and embittered man and, despite his father's counsels, joined in various mad plans

which could not be expected to succeed. The early promise of James Stewart's eldest son, his "dear Carluccio," was not fulfilled. He gave way to intemperance and was a miserable wreck in mind and body when his father died at the age of seventy-seven.

The venture so startled the Government that they took strong measures to prevent any future rising. Many Scottish lords were executed; the clans were broken up and their chiefs exiled; forts and garrisons were set up about the country to overawe the people; and the carrying of weapons and the wearing of the national tartans were forbidden. Scottish regiments were formed in the English army, consisting of gallant young soldiers who were to win great fame on many a later battlefield. However strongly it may be felt to-day that it was all for the best that these patriotic risings came to nothing, every one admires the ungrudging service and loyalty which were given to the exiled Stewarts.

In 1788 Charles Edward died in Rome, penitent and "reconciled to the Church of his fathers." His father and mother were buried in St. Peter's, but the "Count of Albany," as he had been called for many years, was laid to rest in Frascati Cathedral where his brother Henry was Bishop. Then there was left of the Stewart royal house only this Henry, Cardinal York. Though making no attempt to take the throne and given up entirely to his priestly duties, the Cardinal resolutely maintained his claim

to be King Henry the Ninth. In the closing years of his life, when aged and infirm, it is pleasing to read that the kindly George III. made him an allowance every year out of the accumulated funds of the dowry of his grandmother, Queen Mary of Modena. At his death he bequeathed to the King the few Crown jewels which James II. had taken with him in his flight from England.

Great Britain under Walpole.—The inability of George I. to speak English led to the ministers holding their meetings without him. The principal member of the Cabinet would be the chairman and hence arose the title of "Prime Minister." Sir Robert Walpole occupied this position for eighteen years, and his one great idea was to keep the country out of war. On the Continent there was constant war. As Walpole once said to Queen Caroline (who was a much abler ruler than her husband, George II.): "Fifty thousand men killed this year and not one Englishman among them!" And, certainly, after the much fighting of earlier years peace was greatly needed. While it lasted trade increased, the country became wealthy, and small villages grew into large towns. The land was better cultivated and much more food grown; many taxes were taken off goods sent abroad, and the shipping industry flourished through the large cargoes carried to and fro between the mother country and the colonies.

One effect of Walpole's cautious government and the prosperity that came of it was that people began

to care greatly about riches and comfort, and very little for anything else. The bishops and clergy were mostly either learned scholars shut up in their libraries, or rich landowners who went hunting and sporting like the country squires. The churches were closed from Sunday to Sunday, and when opened for service few people attended. A clergyman often held several livings and would take, perhaps, four churches in turn, so that a morning and afternoon service once a month was all that could be given. There were few schools for any but the children of the rich, and the large population were growing up very rough and ignorant.

In 1739 there was a great war raging on the Continent, and British sailors had been quarrelling with the Spaniards in the West Indies and America, where they were not free to trade. People at home were so angry with the stories of ill-treatment brought home that they clamoured for war with Spain. There was great rejoicing in London when war was declared, and Walpole said grimly: "They are ringing their bells now, but they will be wringing their hands soon!" which was a prophecy to come true before long.

Foreign Affairs.—To-day it seems that there was no real reason for Britain to go to war except a readiness to quarrel. Then events in Europe brought about another "Succession" dispute, this time the Austrian Succession. The aged Emperor of Austria had no son and he had induced the other great

Powers to promise to support the claim of his daughter, Maria Theresa. But when he died the Elector of Bavaria would not abide by the agreement; the King of Prussia, who was becoming very powerful, offered to help Maria Theresa if she would give him the Province of Silesia. When she refused he joined the Elector against her, and helped to get him made Emperor. Then Spain and France joined in against Austria; and Great Britain was drawn in because the Elector of Hanover was King George III., and Hanover was strongly on the side of Austria. In 1742 a large army was sent out under King George himself, the last of our sovereigns actually to fight in a war. The battle of Dettingen was won by his troops the next year. Then Louis XV. of France openly supported Charles Edward Stewart, and it was while this foreign war was on that the Jacobite Rising of 1745 took place. In 1748 the Peace of **Aix-la-Chapelle** ended the troublesome strife. The old quarrel no longer mattered. The King of Spain had died, and Frederick the Great of Prussia had dropped out, displeased with the little he was gaining. But the dispute between France and Great Britain had been carried on more fiercely in America and India than in Europe.

King and Country.—George II. had a long reign but, like his father, was never happy in England. The little State of Hanover was far more important to him than Great Britain, and his frequent visits to it led to his ministers becoming more powerful. In

the war of the Austrian Succession he had fought in person at the battle of Dettingen and won a great victory (1743). The King and his son, Frederick Prince of Wales, never agreed and after the death of Queen Caroline the prince openly defied his father, and supported any minister and any measure disapproved by the King. The great minister, Walpole, had increased the trade of the country by removing or altering taxes on materials, and the discovery of the South Wales coalfields, and the cutting of canals to carry the coal from the pits, led to the immense change in the face of the country and the lives of the people which marks the eighteenth century. The small villages of the north became large towns, and places which had been thickly populated dwindled, as the new industries increased. Steam-power was used first for pumping water out of mines, but in 1736 there was a paddle-steamer, partly independent of its sails, which plied round the coast.

The country still grew enough food for its population, but the methods of cultivating the land were slow and wasteful. Some Scottish landowners led the way in improvements and in the growing of fresh "roots" introduced from abroad. A great statesman, Lord Townshend, when he retired from office, won the nickname of "Turnip" Townshend through his enterprise on his estates.

In Parliament the country gentlemen of the past had been succeeded by wealthy merchants and great employers of labour, but they, like the earlier Com-

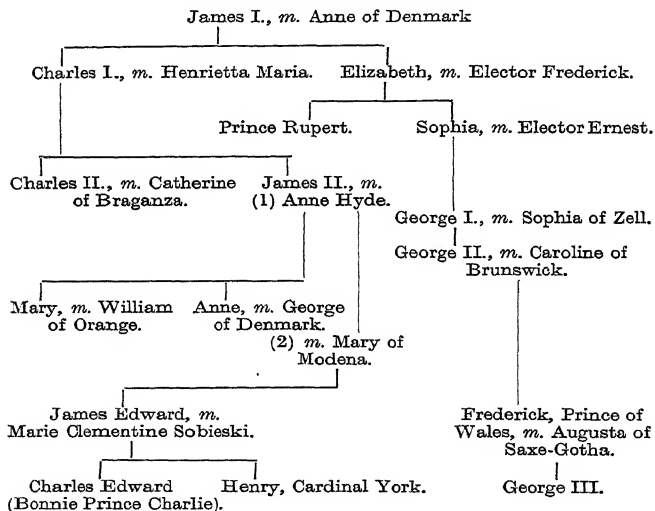
mons, in no way represented the mass of the people. The Whig party, who stood for the House of Hanover on the throne, were still stronger than the Tories, and Walpole's hard common sense had served the country well. But a young statesman, one William Pitt, came to the front and, during the last years of the reign of George II., was the energetic war minister whom the country most needed.

One reform, which took place in 1752, was the correction of the calendar. Until then Great Britain was following the older (Julian) reckoning, though all Catholic countries had adopted the reformed calendar made under Pope Gregory XIII. in 1582. Through the accumulated tiny errors during two centuries the older calendar was eleven days behind. Lord Chesterfield, noted as the author of letters to his son on good behaviour, was the most active mover in the reform, and in 1752 it was announced that the new method would begin in September. Eleven days were to be dropped; thus September 14 would follow immediately after September 2. Also the new year was to begin on January 1 instead of on March 25. But very few people understood what it was all about, and the Government had taken no trouble to explain. So that those who were against any change in established custom stirred up objections, and there were actually riots in the streets of London by excited crowds, shouting, "Give us back our eleven days!" The double change made it rather confusing for many years and accounts for

the twofold date sometimes given of events occurring between September and March, for example, January 29, 164 $\frac{8}{9}$, and November $\frac{17}{28}$, 1752.

The Prince of Wales died before his father, leaving a young son to succeed him, and with his reign, as George III., we enter upon a time of important and far-reaching changes.

THE HOUSES OF STEWART AND HANOVER



CHAPTER XI

*BRITISH SETTLEMENTS OVERSEAS (1607-1732)**Summary.*

1607	The colony of Virginia was founded by trading companies.
1620	The colony of New England was founded by the Pilgrim Fathers.
1621	Sir William Alexander, with a band of Scotsmen, founded Nova Scotia.
1627	Settlers founded Bridgetown in Barbadoes, West Indies.
1633	Lord Baltimore founded the Catholic colony of Maryland.
1655-6	Cromwell sent Scottish and Irish royalists to Jamaica.
1662	North and South Carolina were founded by English emigrants.
1682	William Penn founded model colony of Pennsylvania (New Netherlands).
1732	General Oglethorpe established the settlement of Georgia.

James I.—Love of adventure and eagerness to trade first led our countrymen to explore and to try to settle in new lands. Sir Walter Raleigh, that champion of enterprise, lived to see the colony he had hoped to found successfully established by trading companies. Thus Virginia was the first of the American colonies. Many people still thought that gold was to be easily got in those strange new countries, but as one of their leaders said, "Nothing is to be done here without labour." So faint-hearted colonists, who had hoped to get rich

quickly, returned, the braver ones remaining and building Jamestown.

Among the many people who fled from England to escape religious persecution in this reign were some strict Puritans, called, from this adventure, the Pilgrim Fathers. In their small ship, the *Mayflower*,¹ they at length reached the barren coast of Cape Cod, and founded New Plymouth. They had many hardships in their new life—a harsh climate, unfriendly natives, and scanty food. Longfellow's story in verse of "Miles Standish" belongs to this place and people.

It is sad to learn that these very Puritans who left England that they might be free to practise their religion showed themselves cruel persecutors of any others who were not of exactly the same way of believing. They drove out into the wilds one of their own ministers who spoke for greater freedom. To the Quakers, or Society of Friends, who had emigrated for the same reasons as themselves, they were as harsh and cruel as any of the tyrants they had left behind.

From the time of James I.'s last Parliament the idea of colonies abroad was in every one's mind. Francis Bacon, the Lord Chancellor, had written learnedly on "Plantations" as they were called, how and where they should be begun and how they should be managed. He described them as "heroical works," and certainly immense courage and fortitude were needed.

¹ See p. 14.

Charles I.—Early in the reign of Charles I. some colonists went to the pleasant Barbadoes, in the West Indies, and there founded Bridgetown. Here was no harsh climate, but a fertile soil upon which the sugar-cane grew luxuriantly. Soon sugar took the place of honey in home cookery. In later days the “planters” were encouraged to keep slaves and, indeed, many men and women and even children were transported there as a punishment for offences against the laws, or for opposing the Government. They were called “apprentices,” but they were simply slaves.

A Scotsman, Sir William Alexander, settled a band of his hardy countrymen on the borders of Canada and called the place Nova Scotia. Then, ten years later, some Catholic emigrants, fleeing from persecution, were befriended and settled in part of Old Virginia by Lord Baltimore, calling their new home Maryland. A priest who went with them, Father Whyte, wrote admiringly of the vast open spaces and the great spreading trees, yet so broadly standing that “you might freely drive a four-horse chariot between them.” These immense avenues contrasted greatly with the English and Scottish countryside. Marshes and forests still abounded in the seventeenth century, thick and impassable with tangled undergrowth; roads were mostly only tracks which disappeared in the winter floods, and much of the land was uncultivated.

Cromwell.—In 1655, when Jamaica was captured

by Admiral Penn, it became a convenient place to which Cromwell and his Government sent any Royalists who were suspected of planning insurrections. English and Scots and Irish alike were shipped off, most of them never to return.

Charles II.—During the reign of Charles II. some parties of willing emigrants, not banished offenders, went out to the large tracts of country lying south of Virginia. These lands were given as rewards to some of the peers who helped in the Restoration, and all sorts of clever plans were made for the government of the new colony. A beginning had been made in Charles I.'s time, but now the real founding of North and South Carolina took place (*Carolus*, Charles).

Twenty years later William Penn, who as a young man had been disowned by his father for becoming a Quaker, was given some land in the New Netherlands.¹ There he took a company of "Friends," and in **Penn's Sylvania** (woodlands) founded a happy little colony and built **Phil-adelphia** (brotherly love). These Quakers treated the natives with justice and kindness, and were the first to stand against the slavery which was becoming established as the number of white settlers increased.

George II.—The last of the English colonies along the coast was Georgia, so called in honour of George II. A retired officer of the army, named Oglethorpe, who had fought under Marlborough, was moved to do

¹ See p. 76.

something for the unfortunate debtors who, by the cruel and stupid laws in force, were shut up in prisons with criminals of all kinds with no chance of ever getting free. General Oglethorpe selected strong, energetic men of good character, paid their debts and then, obtaining from the King a grant of land, sent off his released prisoners to the American shore, where they established the little colony of Georgia.

From these small beginnings grew the British Colonial Empire in the New World where, however, there were earlier settlements of Spanish, Dutch, and French emigrants, and thus there arose trouble and strife in the near future.

Questions and Exercises (1714–1760)

1. What right had George I. to become King of Great Britain ?
2. What do you know about (1) Sheriffmuir ; (2) Dettingen ?
3. Make a collection of Jacobite songs, and learn the one you like best.
4. Who were : (1) Sir Robert Walpole ; (2) the Duke of Cumberland ; (3) Maria Theresa ?
5. On a blank map of Europe colour the following countries : France, Austria, Prussia, Russia, Great Britain, Ireland, Spain, Portugal. Write the names of the sovereigns of these countries in 1740.
6. On a blank map of North America colour in the British settlements made during the seventeenth century.
7. Read some lines of *Hiawatha*, and learn ten or twelve that you like best.
8. Which story of the founding of a colony do you think most interesting ? Which colony would you have wished to settle in ?

CHAPTER XII

GREAT BRITAIN UNDER PITT.

Summary.

1750-59	Great Britain and France were at war in America and in India.
1756-63	Great Britain took part in the Seven Years' War.
1760	George II. died and Pitt went out of office. George III., grandson of George II., began his long reign.

America.—Under these Hanoverian Kings the real ruler of the country was the chief minister of the strongest party in Parliament. Walpole had been able to keep peace for many years; his great successor, William Pitt, had to provide for incessant wars, and yet to prevent the country having actually to fight. It was part of the aim of France to help her colonists in America to connect Canada in the north with Louisiana in the south, by claiming the rich valley of the Mississippi. An enterprising French governor, General Duquesne, built a line of forts along the western edge of the British colonies, thus shutting them in the seaboard.

A young Virginian, named George Washington, soon to become famous, vainly tried to seize the fort on the borders of his district, and an English general

sent by the Home Government also failed and was killed in the attack. Then Montcalm, the military governor of Canada, seized some British forts, which stirred the colonists to form and train and drill bands of men as militia to help the little English garrison. Quite an amount of fighting took place and Pitt determined in 1759 to strike a swift blow and end the quarrel.

This statesman had a great gift for "knowing a man when he saw him," that is, of judging character, and he selected a young officer named James Wolfe, to take charge of an expedition. A very careful plan was made that Wolfe and his men should attack Quebec, the capital, in its commanding position from the cliff, while other leaders seized the two forts on the other sides. They knew that they had a fine soldier and a daring and clever enemy in Montcalm.

How Wolfe decided on a night attack and headed a little procession of boats along the majestic St. Lawrence river; how he kept his mind clear and his heart steady by whispering to his officers some verses from a poem which had just appeared (Gray's *Elegy in a Country Churchyard*), and how he repeated gently one of the lines, "The paths of glory lead but to the grave"—all this may be read at length in the story of the taking of Quebec.

The silent climb up the steep cliffs was managed, the garrison taken by surprise, and the battle in full swing by daylight. In the sudden hand-to-hand

fighting both the French Montcalm and the British Wolfe were sore wounded, and they died within a few hours of each other. But the day was won, and there remained the task of subduing and pacifying the rest of Canada.



Wolfe.

From the Painting by Schaak in the National Portrait Gallery.

(From Gardiner's "Student's History of England.")

India.—In India there was the same kind of rivalry between French and British settlements owned by trading companies, but the French were under the direct protection of their Government with a military general in command. The English East

BOOK V.—PUPIL'S

India Company had a few soldiers in their forts, but the officials of the company were the responsible heads. In this part of the story of India the name of Robert Clive stands out as that of the most famous man. About ten years before Pitt became Prime Minister, as a lad of barely seventeen, he had been sent out as a clerk in the service of the company. Young Robert was the eldest of a large family and had always been a troublesome character, getting on well neither at school nor at home.

But he showed he had some force of character in setting himself, during the long rough voyage out, to learn Hindostanee. Afterwards he found some consolation for his loneliness in being permitted to roam through his chief's library, and making friends with books. How lonely he was peeps out in his letters home, though they were by no means a list of grumbles: "I have not enjoyed one happy day since I left my native country," he wrote. Clive found himself stationed at Madras, one of the three groups of fort-factories owned by the company. When the French General Dupleix made his attack Clive volunteered for service, and soon came to the front as an able as well as a brave soldier. He got permission to take a small force and besiege Arcot, the town where Dupleix had set up his state as governor.

With his little army of three hundred Clive took the town, but then was himself with his men besieged in it by the French! For nearly eight weeks the

little troop endured great hardships ; but the young leader had made himself so valued by his soldiers that they contrived every day to find something to set before him. And the " Sepoys " or natives, who were about a hundred in number, asked the commander to permit them to supply all the ration of rice to the " white men," and they themselves would be quite content with the water it was boiled in.

Starved as they were, they managed to overcome the besiegers, who were also partly French and partly native soldiers. It greatly damaged the position of the French in native esteem when they were seen to be vanquished. Then the Home Government sent help, and in 1754 the British were for the moment supreme in India.

But two years later the Nabob of Bengal, who was supporting the French, seized Calcutta and imprisoned all the British of the settlement in a dungeon. Nearly a hundred and fifty were forced into this small, dark cell, and by morning all but twenty-five were dead. Again Clive came to the fore to avenge this cruel deed, and though he had only a small force it was so well trained and so determined that a great victory was won at Plassey (1757) and British authority was not disputed again. As Governor of Bengal, Clive had always to be watchful of the native princes lest they should come under the influence of the French, and he sometimes used those dangerous things—bribes and broken promises. For this he got into serious trouble in the

years to come and, though he had done a great work for his country, and had laid the foundations of the British Empire in India, he died in 1774 a sad and dishonoured man.

The Seven Years' War.—This war was really a continuation of the War of the Austrian Succession, for the King of Prussia, Frederick the Great, had kept Silesia, and the Empress Maria Theresa was determined to get it back. France was on her side, and Great Britain on that of Prussia. Pitt's idea was to help Frederick with money but not to send an army across to the Continent. Instead, he planned to keep the navy very busy so that France should not be able to send troops to help her colonists in America and in India. For two years France and Austria won victories in Europe, but the British ships prevented French communication with India and America. More than once Frederick the Great was nearly beaten. The Duke of Cumberland, the "Butcher" of the Scots ten years before, was in command of the Hanoverian troops, and was so unsuccessful that his father angrily observed in his presence, "My son, who has disgraced me." Russia, newly powerful in the affairs of Europe, was also helping Austria to oppose Frederick, whose lust for power was the real cause of the war. He was an unscrupulous ruler, but a mighty man of war, and the only time that he was known to show sorrow was when a regiment of his tall grenadiers filed past him all disordered after a defeat.

In 1759 the tide turned and one victory followed another for Britain's allies. A fine gentleman, Horace Walpole, son of the great minister, and a famous letter-writer, wrote to a friend, "One is forced to ask every morning what new victory there is for fear of missing one." It was known as the Year of Victories. But for five years longer the war was to last, and before it ended the young King George III. sat upon the throne of Great Britain.

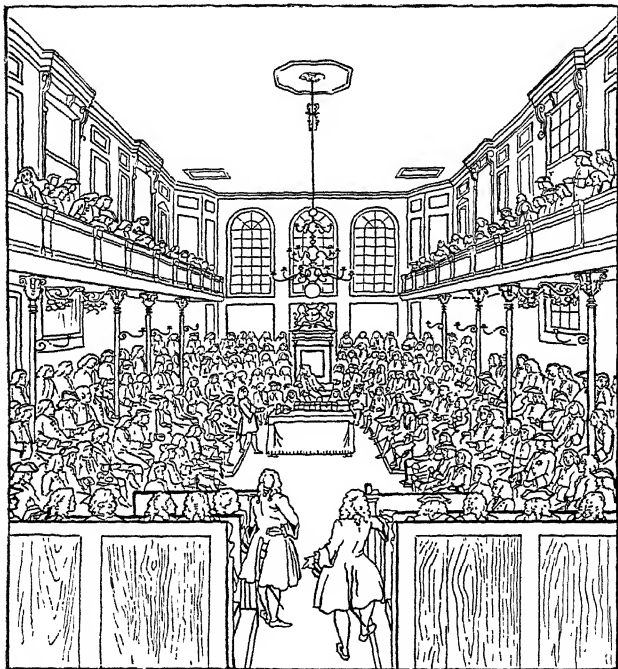
CHAPTER XIII

*THE REIGN OF GEORGE III.**Summary.*

1760	George III. became King.
1763	The Peace of Paris ended the Seven Years' War.
1775	The American Colonies rebelled.
1783	American Independence was recognized.
1789	The French Revolution began.

The Early Years.—No longer shall we be able to say that between Parliament and King it was the Parliament that mattered. George III., at the age of twenty-two, came to the throne prepared to govern, and in his own way. His mother, the Princess of Wales, was an able woman and she and her trusted Scottish adviser, Lord Bute, had brought him up to believe fully in the divine right of kings. Her repeated counsel was, "George, be a King." We have seen how the Stewart sovereigns lost their power and broke themselves in their struggle to overrule the Parliament; this young Hanoverian monarch, with just the same convictions, was to try absolute government by getting the Parliament on his side. Perhaps he had seen for himself his grandfather's unimportant position—never arranging anything himself, unless something about his troops;

rarely seeing his ministers but receiving their reports



A sitting in the House of Commons in 1741-42.
From an engraving by Pine.

(From Gardiner's "Student's History of England.")

from his wife, the clever Queen Caroline, and had determined that his own should be very different.

The story goes that, when Pitt set off in his coach to Kew Palace to bear the young prince the news of his accession, he met him on the way, coming to take up his new duties.

George III. knew the country and the people, spoke English, and was most anxious to have it known that he cared nothing for Hanover. "I glory in the name of Briton," he declared. At first he was very popular. His subjects admired his up-standing inches and princely bearing. At the Coronation ceremony all the old English customs were revived. The royal champion flung down his glove of mail on the paved floor of Westminster Hall and challenged all comers to dispute his master's right. The distinguished company heard the ring of metal on stone but—never after was the glove found. Rumour had it that Prince Charles Edward himself was present and carried it off. However, only romantic Jacobites thought anything of the curious event, and George III. and his Queen began their reign in high spirits and meaning very well.

This lady was German, the Princess Charlotte of Mecklenburg, and her lack of beauty and gracious qualities soon lessened their popularity. The King had lived a very quiet, studious life with his widowed mother and hardly ever entertained any society, and the Queen, in her little German home, knew nothing of Court life. Lord Bute, his tutor, was made an official of the Court and a member of the Privy Council, and the King soon showed that he was the

only person whose advice he cared to have. Pitt resigned and the King chose other ministers to carry on the government, and as every one was tired of the war, the peace party were in power. King George was quite glad to get rid of Pitt, but insisted on rewarding him with a peerage. Very reluctantly the "Great Commoner" accepted the Earldom of Chatham and henceforth belonged to the House of Lords.

Lord Bute and John Wilkes.—If Scotsmen generally had a grudge against England for having "swallowed" Scotland, the English were equally jealous of their northern countrymen. Partly because Bute was a Scots marquis, and partly because it was thought that his advice made the King pay no attention to his ministers, he was very unpopular. In London a rude mob hooted his appearance as he drove to the House of Lords, and when the Princess of Wales's coach was seen in the streets they tied a jack-boot on it. So the marquis had to resign his offices, though he still remained the King's favourite adviser. Between them they got together a party of men in Parliament known as the "King's Friends," who were ready to support anything he wished done. This made the ministers who were not in power very angry, and their followers protested loudly.

It was a great time for political papers and pamphlets, and a very outspoken one, called the *North Briton* (which suggests a Scottish hand in it), was run by a Member of Parliament, one John Wilkes.

It had articles which said some plain and harsh things about, not only the King's ministers, but also the King himself. Wilkes was arrested and imprisoned and King George ordered Parliament to expel him. This, of course, the House of Commons refused to do; again and again he was elected, and then the City of London made him an Alderman. London had always been very jealous of kingly power, and took this way of standing up for popular rights. Houses were chalked with the defiant cry, "Wilkes and Liberty," and "No. 45" (the number of the political paper which began the stir), and in the end Wilkes took his seat, but the undignified squabble had done the King and his friends no good.

The head of the party known as the "King's Friends" was Lord North, and his name is always connected with the loss of the American colonies. This came about after the long quarrel, in which he supported the King.

The Quarrel with the American Colonies.—During the seventy years since their first founding the American colonies had grown and become extremely prosperous. While Great Britain was at war with France, and through the rivalry between the French and English colonies, our settlements had depended very much upon the British forces sent out to protect them. This had been very costly, and it seemed to the Home Government that part of the cost should be met by the colonies which had benefited. With the **Peace of Paris** they no longer

needed either ships or soldiers, so that the proposal that they should pay taxes to the mother country was resented.

No doubt if ministers had put it differently, their plan would have succeeded, but we have to confess that they, like the King, always looked on the colonies much as unruly children, and would neither explain nor give reasons. And as the **possessions** of Great Britain they thought the colonies had no political rights of their own, and that it was necessary to show that the mother country could control them. The colonists maintained that as they were not represented in Parliament they could not be taxed by Parliament, quoting the good old watchword, "What touches all must be approved by all," and the battle-cry became, "No representation, no taxation." Also they were more than a little sore about the Navigation Acts, which compelled them to send their goods to England first and in English ships. Nor were they allowed to have "free trade" with each other, or to sell any made-up materials which Great Britain also produced.

The first taxes were to be paid by requiring the colonists to have papers bearing Government stamps of different values for all published books, magazines, all contracts and agreements, and all business and legal documents. When the Government paper arrived piles of it were burnt in the harbour, the rest stowed away in cellars, and the officials in charge (Stamp-masters) roughly treated. A flaming placard

appeared on walls and houses : “ *Pro Patria : The first man that distributes or uses stamp paper let him take care of his House, Person, and Effects. Vox Populi. We dare.*” The Government gave in about this, and the colonists were so delighted that they set up statues of the King and his minister Pitt, who had championed their cause (1766).

Unfortunately the peace was short. The next year the Chancellor of the Exchequer thought he would put a small tax on tea, and shiploads of the East India Company's tea and other goods were sent over to America. But so indignant were the colonists that they would not allow the tea to be landed. Watchful patrols guarded the ports and harbours and, calling themselves “The Sons of Liberty,” defied the English troops who were sent to quell the riots. Then they burnt the revenue ship that cruised the coast in search of smugglers. For seven years this curious conflict went on. No one in the colonies would drink or handle tea, and at last a band of sturdy fellows, disguised as Red Indians, unloaded the cargo of hundreds of chests of tea on a waiting ship and tipped them into the harbour. The “Boston Tea Party” became a cry of defiance, and at home the Government decided to put down the revolt against its authority by force.

Some Acts of Parliament took away from the colonists their rights of self-government. Then a “Declaration of Right” sent by them was rejected in the House. The King declared their conduct was

“open rebellion,” and in spite of Lord Chatham’s efforts in the House of Lords and Burke’s arguments in the House of Commons, further troops were sent out with orders to attack the rebel districts. For



Lord Chatham.

After a Picture by R. Brompton.

(From Tout's "*A History of Great Britain.*" Book II.)

three years there were battles in America between the British forces and the Colonial troops (1775–78). Then the European countries, which had looked on with interest at Great Britain punishing her daughter-states, joined in. France, Spain, and Holland took

sides with the colonies, and in 1776 their rejected "Declaration of Right" was changed into a "Declaration of Independence."

The British armies, though sometimes victorious, were often defeated, and in 1781 the Commander-in-Chief, Lord Cornwallis, himself had to surrender. Then, all too late, the Home Government saw that the struggle was useless, and promised to grant every demand except Independence. But that, too, had to be yielded; for the European countries, and especially France, were sending troops under gallant leaders to the help of the colonists. There were also various bands of volunteers from France, ready and eager to be with the men who were "fighting to be free." Well might it be known in America as "the King's war," for George III. obstinately refused to yield; and besides the immense cost in money to the country, there was a serious drain of men. The army and the navy were recruited by means of the "press-gangs," who could seize and "impress" any able-bodied man in the name of the King. They were packed in crowded sailing ships with bad and insufficient food; marched long distances bootless and in tatters, and none of them had any clear idea of what they were fighting for. The prisoners taken were brought home, and great prisons built—of which Princetown on Dartmoor was one—to receive them. It was a time of misery and sorrow for all concerned, besides adding a hundred million pounds to the National Debt. By the Treaty of Versailles (1783)

Great Britain acknowledged the independence of the colonies, henceforth to be known as the United States of America. Though both sides have long since forgiven old grudges, July 4 is still kept in America as Independence Day, a day of public rejoicing.

Ireland (1760-1801). — For more than twenty years Ireland had been seething with discontent which might at any time break into open revolt. She had much the same grievances as the distant colonies and had been even worse treated; and during the struggle not only had all the British troops been withdrawn for the war, but also the Irish had raised regiments of their own. With the successful example of America before them, Protestants and Catholics united under the leadership of two hot patriots, Flood and Grattan, to demand a Parliament of their own (1782). It was granted, but spoilt in the granting. Catholics could not sit in it; dissenters might not, either; the peasants (a very large part of the population) were neither in it nor represented. The English and Anglo-Irish landlords rarely lived on their estates, and the land was badly cultivated, so that when the potato crop failed, which made the chief food of the poor, there were misery and starvation.

Of course there was great discontent: some sullen, some patient, and some active, leading to the forming of secret societies sworn to rebel and hoping for help from France. There were "United

Irishmen ” and opposed to them were the “ Orange-men,” the loyalists, as they called themselves. Both parties formed little regiments of desperate men and there took place burnings of villages and killing of people, till much of north and south-east Ireland were the scenes of barbarous warfare. The



William Pitt.

From the Portrait at Apsley House.

(From Tout's "*A History of Great Britain.*" Book II.)

“ national ” feeling was so strong that in 1796, under another patriotic leader, Wolfe Tone, there was planned a great insurrection of Catholics and Protestants, with the promised help of France, to shake off British rule altogether. The cruelty with which the British Government punished the attempt led to another rising two years later and though it,

too, failed for want of arms and leaders, the massacres which followed left whole districts waste, and strengthened in the minds of all Irish Catholics a deep and bitter sense of injustice.

Though caring little for wealth and trade, they valued most dearly their Faith, and this, their one treasure, was always being insulted and, as far as possible, taken from them. No British statesman realized this ; but Pitt and Burke pleaded for justice ; and so it came about that though the King would not hear of any further freedom for Catholics, the country was united to Great Britain, with representatives in the British Parliament. By the **Act of Union** (1801) Irish members sat at Westminster and the Union Jack became the national flag.

The French Revolution.—In 1789 a terrible revolution broke out in France. At first it was thought in Great Britain that it was caused by bad government, long wars which made taxation heavy, and the tyranny of its former kings. But within a few months all law and order were at an end, and soon the King (Louis XVI.) and Queen were imprisoned and beheaded. Immense numbers of the “aristocrats” were sent to the guillotine, and one set of tyrants succeeded another in the Government. They then sent messages to other countries as “the friends of all the Peoples and the enemies of all the Governments” of Europe, inviting them to rebel. So the different kings and rulers leagued themselves together against France, whose armies marched into

Holland and Austria and won victories, and frightened Spain into joining her. The most famous of the French generals was one Napoleon Buonaparte, and soon he became head of the army and head of the Government. The principal work of Great Britain



Napoleon I.

From a Painting by Meissonier.

(From Van Dyke's "History of Painting.")

was to take charge of the seas ; and her ships, under Lord Howe and Admiral Jervis and Commodore Nelson, defeated those of France and Spain. But on land the armies of the French Republic, under General Buonaparte, had been so successful that in

1797 no European country was strong enough to stand against the new State. After years of bloodshed, in which later bands of rulers had executed their predecessors, France was at last peacefully governed within, and its master, Napoleon Buona-parte, preparing to conquer Europe and the East. He succeeded in conquering Europe on land, and only the British navy had prevented the same at sea in the closing years of the eighteenth century.

Eighteenth-Century Literature.—In the early years of the reign of George I. appeared the first book of Adventure Stories which has had so many imitators since. Defoe, a noted writer of pamphlets for which he was more than once imprisoned, worked up the story of a mutineer left on an uninhabited island into the *Life and Surprising Adventures of Robinson Crusoe*. After this, story-telling, either of adventure or of ordinary life, became a popular form of literature. Quite at the end of the century the telling of stories in verse, as in old times, began again, and Coleridge wrote his *Rime of the Ancient Mariner*. This also was taken from a story of the sea, but Coleridge showed the new spirit which was touching men's thought, in laying more stress upon the supernatural experiences of the sailor than upon the terrible events.

There were many industrious authors during the years in between who brought out solid books on serious subjects, as well as the writers of fiction. Among them the most interesting and lovable

figure is Dr. Johnson, the Dictionary maker, a man of great learning and one of the earliest to earn his living by the pen. He wrote stories and plays, made translations, and composed verses and essays and books on travel. In politics he was a high Tory, and he was also a most devoutly religious man. When middle-aged he performed an act of public penance and reparation, by standing hatless for an hour in the market-place of Lichfield. There his father had kept a bookseller's shop and young Samuel had chafed and rebelled at having to mind the stall on market-days. His rolling figure, eccentric manners, and great fondness for tea made him noticeable in the London of his day, but his fine character and good qualities keep him still respected and admired.

CHAPTER XIV

THE REIGN OF GEORGE III. (continued)

The Industrial Revolution.—The change which had begun to take place in Great Britain before George III. came to the throne went on apace during the latter years of the eighteenth century. It is known as the Industrial Revolution because the way in which the work of the country was carried on became entirely altered. Formerly there had been few large towns, and the cultivation of the land was the chief employment of the people ; that is, most of the nation were country people. There were many cornfields, and wide pastures where flocks of sheep and herds of cattle were fed ; and the wool and leather they provided were worked up in the homes of the people and collected for sale in the great markets. But now small farms and holdings were becoming fewer ; the commons and waste lands, which had been free to the poor man's geese and pigs, were being enclosed and joined to the estates of the great landowners. Though some rich merchants retired from business and, settling down as country gentlemen, took up farming as a hobby and did much good in clearing

and draining land, yet, on the other hand, many country squires shut up their manors to live for the greater part of the year in London. The workers on their estates thus lost their employment and went to the towns in search of work.

Another great cause of the change was the invention of machinery. "Multiple" spinning wheels replaced the pretty single wheel of the cottage woman; machine looms, needing but few men to tend them, did much more quickly the weaving formerly carried on in the country homes. Next, factories were built to house the machines and people flocked to these to work; and houses were built so quickly in the new, growing towns that they were built very badly, and so close together that they shut out sunlight and air. These were the beginning of the "slums."

Then the invention of the steam-pump led to the sinking of deep mines, and coal and iron could be obtained more cheaply. And as Britain's richest coalfields lie in the north of the country, iron foundries and factories were built in those districts, and they became what is called the "Black Country." In earlier days Sussex and Kent had been the iron-smelting centres, the wood of their forests being used as charcoal in the furnaces.

And as steam-power gradually replaced hand machines, Manchester and Bradford grew into large towns, while the villages of East Anglia, for centuries the home of the woollen industry, were deserted.

When the spinning and weaving were done in the homes even quite small children shared in the work, and their clever little sensitive fingers helped to earn the family living. In the change to factories, belonging to great employers who paid wages to their workers, there were apt to be many people wanting work and few places empty, so that wages were very low. Hence the children, too, were sent to the factories as "minders" of the machines, and to the mines to work the coal. Many of the passages were very low and narrow so that a little boy or girl by stooping could go where the ponies could not pass. They were harnessed to the small wheeled trolleys which carried the coal from the "pickings" to the broader openings, or they sat in the niches cut in the wall to open the low doors for the trolleys to pass.

During King George III.'s reign much cotton was imported from America, and so the cotton-goods trade grew up beside that of woollens. And when the colonies had won their independence, and the terrible French Revolution was raging, Great Britain was very busy with these industries and her merchants and factory owners had become rich men. They were able to export a great deal of material, for the continental countries were so engaged in wars that they had few men to spare for peaceful industry. Thus our country was becoming a great workshop, and was able to send goods to all the markets of Europe and America. But the actual workers were

very badly off. Whether they toiled in mines or foundries or factories, or in the open fields, they had long hours and little pay. There were no schools for the children of the poor, unless some kind-hearted person provided an aged woman or a broken-down soldier with a few forms and a horn-book ; and in a dark cottage room they painfully learned their letters, and perhaps to read easy words. So that they grew up rough and wild, and broke fences and damaged property, or stole things, and then were punished very severely. The laws were harsh, and many offenders were visited with hanging or with transportation to the sugar plantations in the colonies, where they became almost slaves.

Catholics under George III.—Though the King was not directly responsible for the shameful cruelty shown to the Irish Catholics, yet he was always most resolutely determined not to permit his Catholic subjects, either in Ireland or England, to have any of the rights of citizenship. Much against his will, Pitt succeeded in getting an Act of Parliament passed in 1778 which granted a little relief. But the Protestants were furious and a London mob, under a half-crazy nobleman, Lord George Gordon, first attempted to rush the House of Commons, and then began to destroy Catholic property, burn down the chapels, and break into houses where Catholics lived. Even the ambassadors' chapels were plundered and sacred objects destroyed. Shouting "No Popery," they rioted for days, burnt down Newgate Prison

and set the prisoners free. Then the King sent a regiment of soldiers to put down the disturbance. More than fifty years were to pass before their rights as citizens were restored to Catholics.

Meanwhile, those who were loyal to the Faith had many things to suffer. They might not practise their religion openly ; no priest could wear clerical dress. Disguised as farmers or merchants the priests and their flock would assemble in some secret place, with watch kept at the door, for the celebration of Mass. Or, seated in a tavern parlour with tankards before them, the faithful few would assist at the Holy Mysteries, while their Protestant neighbours believed them to be merely wayfarers met for a meal. So late as 1813 no Catholic could be a school-master or send his sons to a place of Catholic education, for there was not one in England. Hence lads were sent abroad by all Catholics who could afford it, to the colleges of Douai or Rome.

There were, however, a few people in the Protestant Church of England who were sad to see religion either persecuted or forgotten, and of these the names of John and Charles Wesley stand out brightly in this joyless period. As young men at the University they lived lives of devotion, and because of their regular prayers and rule of life their fellow-students nicknamed them "Method-ists." Soon they determined to give their lives to showing people how to live well and to find happiness in serving God. The Church of England clergymen disapproved

strongly of their mission, and would not allow them to preach in their churches.

So the brothers cut themselves off from the Established Church and opened a little "meeting-house" at Bristol, where they held services. Then they took to preaching in empty barns or on village greens and open spaces all over the country, and soon they were joined by other eager reformers, men and women. "All the world is my parish," declared John Wesley, when an angry clergyman scolded him for preaching near his rectory. In a few years' time this movement had become very active and was spread all over the country. It brought joy and happiness to many cast-down hearts and taught courage and patience to the poor when every one else neglected them. But for this softening influence, in the hard days to come, there would almost certainly have been a great revolution of the workers and the poor against the harsh Government and the careless rich. Both the Wesley brothers could sing, and they loved music; and the hymns and tunes sung at their "preachings" were soon heard all over the country—at the carpenter's bench and the cobbler's stall and the housewife's washing-keel.

The King.—During the last half of George III.'s long reign he was an unhappy man. Of his large family, few gave him any happiness. His eldest son, the Prince of Wales, like the other Hanoverian heirs to the throne, openly went against the King in political matters. He set up a Court of his own and

patronized the party who opposed the King's government. He and his two brothers privately married ladies not of royal birth, and vexed their royal parents by their open disregard of their wishes. Then, in 1788, the King became insane and, though he recovered for a time, his ministers had to be most careful not to worry him lest he should get ill again. Pitt resigned his office at the time of the Union of Great Britain and Ireland (1801), because he felt compelled to work for Catholic Emancipation, and that subject, above all others, might not be pressed upon the King's attention.

For the last ten years of his life the malady made the King unfit to govern and the Prince of Wales became Regent. All unconscious of his kingdom, his colonies, or his enemies, the poor King sat in a quiet room gloomily silent, or fingered coloured wools to lay the strands in colours that matched, while his son ruled and his sailors and soldiers fought in the great wars against Napoleon. The people at large forgot his obstinacy and his faults as a ruler, and felt kindly to the aged monarch, whose simple tastes and habits had won for him the affectionate nickname of "Farmer George."

CHAPTER XV

*THE NINETEENTH CENTURY (I)**Summary.*

1801	Nelson won the victory of Copenhagen.
1805	Nelson was killed at the battle of Trafalgar at the moment of victory.
1808-13	Wellesley (afterwards Duke of Wellington) commanded the armies in the Peninsular War.
1812-15	Napoleon was defeated by British and Prussian armies at Waterloo.

The Wars with Napoleon.—In 1799 the successful General Napoleon Buonaparte was made First Consul of the French Republic, copying the title from old heathen Roman times. In 1804 he declared himself Emperor; and as the men of the Revolution had done away with religion Napoleon made friends with the Pope in order to have his help in restoring it. The new Emperor knew that his realm could never prosper unless people settled down to do their duty, and the teaching of the Church was what helped most of all to inspire them for this. This Pope, Pius VII., was a very learned and holy man, and he consented to Napoleon's wishes in everything that did not dishonour God or the Church. But the haughty soldier thought he could overcome the Pope

as he had overcome all the Kings of Europe, and when his will was opposed he seized the Supreme Pontiff and cast him into prison. A few years



Lord Nelson.

From the Picture by Abbott in the National Portrait Gallery.

(From Gardiner's "*Student's History of England.*")

later Napoleon was a prisoner and the Pope ruling from Rome, and caring for the fallen Emperor's aged mother.

Napoleon had set up his brothers and his cousin

on the thrones of the conquered kingdoms and was master of Europe ; but not master of the sea. For there his fleet and the Spanish navy, too, were opposed by the British ships under Nelson and other brave commanders. The defeat of Russia and Austria at Austerlitz had broken the heart of the great states-



The Duke of Wellington.

From a Portrait at Apsley House.

(From Tout's "*A History of Great Britain.*" Book II.)

man Pitt : " Roll up the map of Europe," he said ; " it will not be wanted again these many years." But with Arthur Wellesley at the head of British troops in the Peninsula, and Sir John Moore at Corunna, came new hope. After months of weary waiting and dismal winters in trenches, victory came

in sight. At Waterloo, a little village in Belgium, the final victory was won (1815) by the British and Prussian armies, and the Emperor fled. He was banished to the island of St. Helena, and lived six years the State prisoner of Great Britain.

For nine years our country had lived under the dread of an invasion by the conquering Buonaparte. Watch was kept all along the coast, roads from the ports were guarded, men in every fishing town and village were drafted into bands, and armed and drilled. The Emperor had become the "Bogey-man" of Europe. Mothers hushed their naughty children with the threat, "Boney will have you!" In 1811 there had been a very severe winter, following a bad harvest, and the whole country suffered for lack of food. The pinch was, of course, hardest on the poor. Sad tales were told of the wretched "substitutes" for bread with which they tried to satisfy their hunger. But it is remembered, too, how the more fortunate people tried to help; how cakes and pastry were never seen, how all luxurious living was put down, and plain and scanty fare became the rule.

When at last the war was over the hardships were not. Taxes were heavy, all trade was disorganized; hospitals were full of wounded soldiers; others, able to get about, begged in the streets. The discharged men from regiments home from the war could get little work, and many became highwaymen and footpads. Many landowners had to close their country

houses and this made the unemployment worse ; the farmers had to charge high prices for corn in order to pay their rents, and the Government would not permit corn to be imported.

GEORGE IV. AND WILLIAM IV. (1820–1837)

Summary.

1820	George III. died and the Prince Regent became King as George IV.
1829	The Catholic Emancipation Act was passed.
1830	William IV. became King on the death of George IV.
1832	The Reform Bill passed in Parliament.
1833	Slavery was abolished in British Dominions.
1837	William IV. died.

Government and the People.—Neither of these sovereigns cared to interfere in the matters of government, and ministers and Parliament were supreme. George IV. was content to be known as the “First Gentleman in Europe” ; William IV. was respectfully known as the “Sailor King” because he had served in the navy. Through all the years of the war the great change which has been spoken of as the Industrial Revolution was going on ; that is, England and, to some extent, Scotland were no longer chiefly agricultural countries, but were becoming manufacturing instead.

In Parliament the great landowners and country squires were being replaced by the rich manufacturers and mine-owners, but these no more than the earlier members in any way represented the working population. And the only way they thought

of to put down discontent was to compel silence or to punish severely. The miserable handicraftsmen, whom the machines had displaced, were getting desperate in the years after the victory at Waterloo. In some parts of the country they banded together to break the machinery or to set the factories on fire, and even to burn the stacks of corn which looked so substantial and good, yet would never provide them with bread. These attempts were put down with a high hand, and strict laws were passed forbidding people to gather together to hear speeches or to grumble.

The year before the old King died a great meeting on St. Peter's Fields outside Manchester was roughly dispersed by mounted troops, who rode over the people, and many were killed. It was grimly called the Massacre of Peterloo, and men became more desperate than ever. Though the first union of workers had been formed many years before it had accomplished little to protect them, and the Government made such associations illegal. Yet reforms were near. If the eighteenth century must be called "A Century of Wars" the nineteenth century (in spite of the character of its early years) deserves to be known as "A Century of Reforms."

The two greatest of these, as making it possible for British subjects to share in the rest, were the **Catholic Emancipation Act** and the **Reform Act**.

Catholic Emancipation.—It is not surprising that the granting of the rights of citizens to Catholics

was largely due to the energy and eloquence of an Irishman, Daniel O'Connell. After the Union of Great Britain and Ireland (1801) Irish members sat in the Parliament at Westminster, but Catholics might not be elected. Though in England Catholics were not very many in number, in Ireland they were still quite three-fourths of the population, and the injustice was keenly felt. We can hardly realize to-day how harsh and oppressive were the laws against them, even if there was no active persecution. Not only could no Catholic sit in Parliament, be an officer in the army, or hold any post under Government, but also no priest might fulfil his duty and celebrate Mass unless he had taken a special Oath of Allegiance. So skilfully had Protestant statesmen entangled politics and religion that "treason" was expected of any Catholic. A Catholic schoolmaster might teach no subject to Protestant pupils; and no college or school might be endowed for Catholic students; thus young men had to be sent abroad for their education. Catholic soldiers were bound to attend the Church of England services under pain of imprisonment in irons for a day. No Catholic might vote at Parliamentary elections.

Many fair-minded men had tried to get this injustice removed, both in Parliament and outside. But Bill after Bill had been rejected, and unthinking people joined with their declared enemies to keep Catholics oppressed, to blame them for any public misadventure, and to look on them as beyond the

pale of citizenship. Burke, the eloquent Irish orator in the House of Commons, had argued for justice, but arguments made little impression on minds stiffly made up. Then, in 1824, his countryman, O'Connell, very justly called the "Liberator," worked so effectively as to get the whole Irish people behind him, "united, disciplined, and ready to brave anything for the Faith." For it they dropped the cry of "Break the Union!" and English Catholics gave up the resentful toast, "No Hanover!" But the King was known to be against freedom for Catholics, and the Duke of Wellington, who became the chief minister soon afterwards, was also strongly opposed. Then a startling thing occurred, which convinced Sir Robert Peel, the Premier, that justice must be done. At the election O'Connell was returned by County Clare as Member of Parliament, and it was felt that any other Irish constituency might do the same, and there would be the perplexing state of things of dozens of members who, as Catholics, might not take their seats. So Peel persuaded the Duke of Wellington and himself brought in the **Catholic Emancipation Bill** (1829).

It became law, and no longer were English Catholics an outcast people, though it took many years to outgrow the popular suspicion and overcome the effects of the long persecution. For a long time Catholic chapels were built in a most quiet and unassuming style with their entrances in back streets. Nor might bells be rung for service, or the members

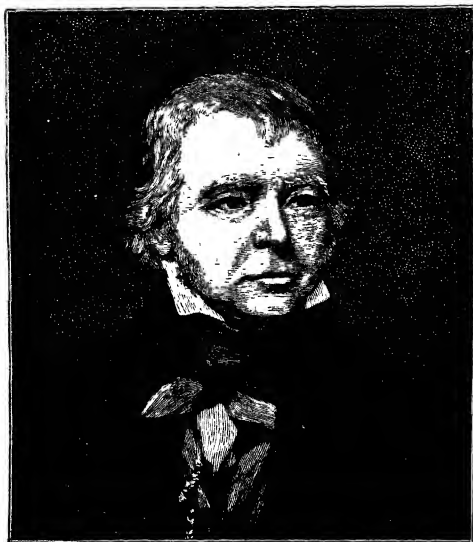
of religious orders wear their habits. Thirty years later Pope Pius IX. restored to England and Wales an archbishop and twelve bishops, instead of the Vicars-Apostolic who had acted as the supreme authorities since the Emancipation. In Scotland the hierarchy was restored in 1878. The proud record of Ireland, in spite of her tragic history, is that the ancient hierarchy has continued without interruption.

During the last fifty years of Queen Victoria's reign the number of Catholic churches in England and Wales had more than doubled, and the three Archbishops of Westminster—Cardinal Wiseman, Cardinal Manning, and Cardinal Vaughan—had piloted the restored Church into a position of influence.

The Reform Bill.—In 1832 this great measure was carried. It brought in a fairer way of (1) representing the people in Parliament, and (2) of electing the representatives. Through the changes of the Industrial Revolution, small villages had become large towns with no representatives, and once-populous places had become uninhabited, but still sent members to the House of Commons. These empty "boroughs," often owned by rich peers, were no longer allowed to elect members to Parliament. One of these sham boroughs was Old Sarum, a ruined farm on Salisbury Plain; another was "Skiddaw Forest," a woodman's hut on the lower slopes of the mountain. So much for the *places* represented.

Next as to the *people*. Until this Reform Act

only those persons might vote who owned property ; by this Act those who paid a certain amount of rent as tenants could also vote. This gave the Franchise



Sir Walter Scott.

From a Painting by Colvin Smith.

From Gardiner's "Student's History of England.")

to many more people, but still not to the workmen and artisans of towns or the farm labourers of the country. And though ministers carried some wise measures, such as freeing all the slaves in the British

dominions, which it cost £20,000,000 to do, and altering the Poor Law so that people could have parish help in their own homes if their wages were low, yet the workers themselves had no say in the matter.

It did not console them, either, to know that Great Britain had won great victories in war and had done away with slavery thousands of miles away, when their own lot was so hard. Wages were low, bread was always dear, hours of work were long; even children worked from six in the morning till six in the evening in factories and mines. And they saw that the employers and merchants, who were represented in Parliament, could get laws made or altered which benefited them, so they began to agitate for the **VOTE**. People who already had it were sure that it would be very dangerous to let poor people have the right of electing Members of Parliament to represent them; they themselves thought it would cure all their miseries.

Neither of them were quite right in thinking thus, but both sides were dreadfully in earnest, and a **People's Charter** was drawn up by the leaders of the party. This document asked, among other things, that every grown person should be able to vote for a Member of Parliament, and that they might elect any one they chose, whether he owned property or not. This was called the Chartist Agitation, and it went on for ten years, because whatever Government was in power it would not listen to them. But the

THE GRIP-FAST HISTORY BOOKS

discontent made Parliament more careful of the needs of the workers, and by degrees the laws were made that shortened the children's hours of labour and cheapened the price of bread. These were the **Factory Acts** and the **Repeal of the Corn Laws** (1846).

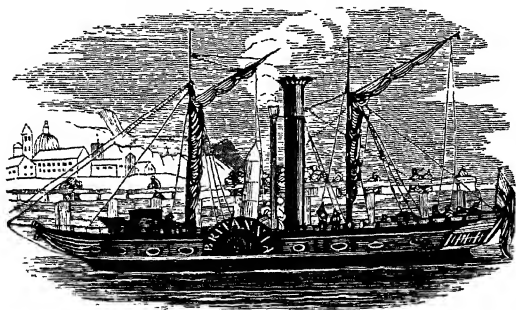
There were also two Acts passed during the early years of the nineteenth century, which gradually did away with a shocking injustice about which many people cared little. We can hardly believe that for fifty years one of the great means of wealth was the Slave Trade, in which numbers of British people were concerned who did not actually own slaves. For the shipping of negroes to the plantations was a large part of the carrying business of British vessels. In 1807 a Bill was passed abolishing this evil trade, and in 1833 another did away with slavery in all the British colonies. But it was a long time before the owning of slaves actually ceased, and many of the offenders who were sent out as "apprentices" to the colonial planters were nothing else than the property of their masters.

In the same year was passed the first of the many **Factory Acts** which did something for the little children working in mines and factories. Henceforth no children under nine years of age might be employed, and women and young people under eighteen might not work more than twelve hours a day. The **Corn Laws** were regulations by the Government which forbade the importing of

wheat, or taxed foreign corn very heavily, so that the landowners and farmers should receive a good price for what they grew. These laws kept bread, the chief food of the poor, very dear, and there were often riots on account of the scarcity. An association was formed, known as the Anti-Corn Law League and, besides their supporters arguing for the repeal of the law in Parliament, they got others to compose verses which were set to popular tunes; and *Corn-law Rhymes* were sung everywhere. In 1845 a terrible famine in Ireland, through the failure of the potato crop, compelled the Government to consider seriously the food supply of the country, and the tax on imported corn was by degrees removed.

Education.—Until nearly the middle of the nineteenth century there were few schools for any but the children of the rich. For them there were some of the great public schools for boys, where the subjects taught were mainly Latin and Greek, and for girls the private boarding schools where, through the scarcity of books, the pupils learnt columns of words from Johnson's Dictionary, and to write and "cipher," as arithmetic was called. Much needlework and the making of wool and wax flowers, with learning to play the harp or the spinet, took up the rest of the day. For the children of the poor there were the village Dame Schools, managed by aged women who taught simple reading and little else. In all these schools the cane played a prominent part, and learning was a painful business.

Then some energetic kindly people, who were ashamed of English ignorance, set on foot night-schools and Sunday-schools, where not only lads and girls, but also grown-up men and women, mastered the alphabet and the pen. So late as 1844, Charles Kingsley, a country clergyman, found that none of the working people could read or write. He, and many parish clergymen, helped in the good work by



Early Steamboat.

From the *Instructor* of 1833.

(From Gardiner's "*Student's History of England*.")

setting up classes in the long winter evenings, and teaching their parishioners something of the delight of reading books. The Society of Friends, or Quakers, had been the first to establish schools in the towns, and the British and Foreign School Society carried on the good work. In these much of the teaching was done by the more advanced pupils, and thus the "pupil teacher" system began. Then the National

Society (as representing the National Church) was formed and, by degrees, schools were established in many parishes to which anyone who could pay the fee of 3*d.* or 4*d.* a week each, might send their children.

Four years before Queen Victoria came to the throne the Government allowed a small grant to these schools, but there were hardly any books provided, and none of the useful and attractive things with which the schools of to-day are furnished. In 1850 the House of Commons took the matter of education more seriously, and grants were given and a scheme of instruction mapped out for teachers and pupils to follow. These grants had to be "earned," for only if a certain number of pupils passed the inspectors' tests was the money paid to the school.

The Scottish people were much sooner in earnest about education than the English, and while the village schools in Scotland often sent eager, diligent students to the Universities of Edinburgh and Glasgow, where the lads lived plainly and worked hard and became notable scholars, in England such ambition was almost unknown. Happily we are able to tell a different story of the latter half of the century.

Questions and Exercises

1. Who were: (1) Wolfe; (2) Clive; (3) George Washington; (4) Montcalm; (5) Dupleix; (6) William Pitt; (7) Lord Bute?
2. On a map of India mark the (1) British, (2) French, forts and factories.
3. Give three reasons why it might be said that the American colonies ought to pay taxes; and three reasons why they ought not.

4. What other countries were interested in the quarrel of Great Britain with her colonies ? And why ?
5. Tell some of the incidents that took place during the quarrel.
6. What had the French Revolution to do with Great Britain ?
7. What do you know of General Buonaparte ? How is he connected with British history ?
8. Read the story of Nelson, or the story of Wellington. Why are they counted among heroes of all time ?

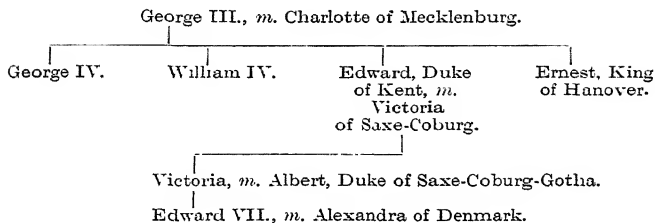
Useful Reference Books for Period 1714-1837

James Francis Edward Stewart (M. Haile). *Men and Women of the French Revolution* (Ph. Gibbs). *Macaulay's Essays on Clive, Johnson, The Story of Nelson* (H. Wheeler). *Longfellow's Hiawatha*.

Episodes suitable for Class Acting

1. The landing of Bonnie Prince Charlie and meeting with Cameron.
2. Prince Charles Edward and Lady Flora Macdonald.
3. Robert Clive before the Board of the East India Company.
4. Wolfe and his officers on the way to Quebec.
5. American citizens planning the "Boston Tea Party."
6. Nelson and his captains on the "Victory."

CHAPTER XVI

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY (II)

Queen Victoria (1837–1901).—Between the passing of the Reform Bill and the framing of the People's Charter William IV. died, and his niece, Victoria, came to the throne as a girl of eighteen. The Prime Minister, Lord Melbourne, whose duty it was to tell the princess the great news, arrived at the palace in the middle of the night, and the princess had to be aroused from sleep and attired for the interview. This minister was both a kind and able man, and with the help of his counsels, Queen Victoria became one of the best rulers in our history. As a queen could not rule in the German states her uncle, the Duke of Cumberland, was made King of Hanover, and no longer were Great Britain and Hanover under

the same monarch. In 1840 the Queen married her cousin, Prince Albert, who was known as the Prince Consort. Though not King he took a great interest in the government of the country, and helped the Queen in every possible way.

About ten years after their marriage, the Queen and the Prince Consort gave their encouragement to the plan of holding a great International Exhibition,



Banner of the Royal Arms,
as borne since 1837.

in which should be shown the arts of peaceful industry, and to it were sent all kinds of machines and manufactures and beautiful objects by other European nations, as well as by all the British Dominions and India. The building was afterwards taken down and set up at Sydenham where, as the Crystal Palace, it was for fifty years or more a storehouse of art and science, as well as a palace of amusement.

The Crimean War.—This war began between Russia, which had become a very strong and ambitious power, and Turkey. France and Great Britain joined in, the one to protect Palestine from the Russians, the other to prevent the Czar from blocking the way to India. Two great battles were fought in 1854—Alma and Balaclava—and it was at Balaclava that the *Charge of the Light Brigade*, which Tennyson sings,

took place. Through a misunderstanding a body of Light Cavalry rushed right up to the Russian guns, to be shot down in their hundreds, so that barely a third of the brigade rode back. Then for months other regiments had to endure Russian frost and snow in the trenches, ill-fed and ill-clothed. Ships taking supplies were wrecked; much of the food sent out was bad; clothes and boots fell to pieces instead of protecting brave men. For the sick and wounded there was hardly any provision until a resolute lady at home, Florence Nightingale, got together the proper hospital goods, medicines, and dressings, and herself went out at the head of a band of nuns to nurse the soldiers. Never before had soldiers been cared for during the actual war, and to this kind and spirited woman is due the beginning of all the splendid Red Cross work that we know to-day. Peace was made in 1856 by the **Treaty of Paris.**

The Indian Mutiny.—Then there came an even worse misfortune for Great Britain. Since the days of Clive the British possessions in India had immensely increased. The East India Company owned towns and lands, and they had always behind them the authority of the British Government. A Governor-General ruled the British territories and these were always growing larger as one Indian prince after another put himself under the Governor's protection. There was a small British army and many regiments of sepoy (natives) commanded by

British officers. These men were splendid fighters, and generally as loyal and trustworthy as Clive had found them at Arcot.

But they cared intensely for their religion, which forbade them to touch the flesh of cows or pigs. It was rumoured among them that the cartridges served out to them were greased with the fat from these animals, and that in using them they would be "polluted" and lose "caste." This was a kind of religious rank or class which depended upon their birth-creed, and not at all upon wealth or power. At Delhi, the ancient capital of India, the mutineers proclaimed a native prince King and shook off the British authority. Then there were great risings in other places, and many treacherous rulers took the opportunity of murdering the English people. By this time there were a great number of English people in India—officials and traders and their families. At Cawnpore a cruel native prince killed all the garrison, including the women and children. It took many months for the British regiments to subdue the mutiny, but at the end of the year (1857) peace was restored, and the government of India was taken over by the Crown.

Ireland in the Age of Victoria.—The granting of Catholic Emancipation, though it removed some of the greater grievances, did not pacify Ireland and could not. There was bitter strife between Catholics and Protestants; the land was owned chiefly by Protestants, many of whom did not live on their

estates or have them properly cultivated. There was an Established Protestant Church, though Protestants were a minority; the trade laws were all in favour of England; and the English Poor Law, which forbade relief to a peasant having more than half an acre of land, was harshly administered. The cry for Repeal of the Union was smothered by attempts to improve the Land Laws and stern measures of "coercion," but almost every year the demand for Home Rule became louder. In 1886 Mr. Gladstone brought in a Bill for Home Rule and again in 1893, but Parliament refused to pass either. The same statesman had brought about, in 1869, the Disestablishment of the Irish Church, so that Catholics had no longer to pay "tithes" for its support; but the Irish never reconciled themselves to the Protestant minority being the prosperous owners of the land which once was their own. There was to wait more than another twenty years for the boon of self-government and independence.

The European Countries.—The middle of the nineteenth century was a time of revolution throughout Europe. *France.*—The King of the old royal house who sat on the throne after the defeat of Napoleon Buonaparte and his successor, had given place to another Napoleon, the nephew of the great general, who became at first President of the Republic, and in 1852 the Emperor Napoleon III.

Germany.—During these years Prussia was becoming more and more powerful. Under her soldier

King, William I., and his clever minister Bismarck, she had fought Denmark and Austria and got wider territories, which they planned to unite in one empire. In 1870 a quarrel arose between Napoleon III. and Bismarck, and in the Franco-Prussian War which followed both monarchs in person commanded their armies. The French were defeated and Napoleon III. gave up his sword to William I. of Prussia. At Versailles, in the palace of the Kings of France, he was crowned German Emperor, and all the German states were united under him, making, with the kingdom of Prussia, the German Empire. There was a revolution in France and the Third Republic was set up, Napoleon and the Empress, with their young son, taking shelter in England. The conquerors exacted very hard terms from the vanquished. France had to give up the two provinces of Alsace and Lorraine and to pay an immense sum of money. By great industry and high resolve she succeeded in doing this well before the time named.

In 1888 William II. succeeded his father as German Emperor and then dismissed the powerful minister, Bismarck, determining to be his own minister. United Germany quickly became prosperous and powerful, and it was well-governed in a military sort of way. Prussia, the leading state, soon showed a grudge against the Catholic Church and placed schools and universities under the sole control of the Government, teaching that duty to the Fatherland must come before duty to religion.

BOOK V.—PUPIL'S

Germany, though it has a fertile soil and is rich in mineral salts, has one geographical drawback, the lack of sea-board. But she, too, desired to have colonies, like other European countries, and found that the best spots in the wide continents were already occupied. And her people were not adventurous enough to make good colonists, though they could get on capitally in any settled country. Soon, by their intelligence and diligence in learning new languages and finding out neat ways of doing things, they were to be found all over the civilized world as clerks and mechanics, as traders and bankers, and as scientific inventors and chemists.

Italy and the Holy See.—Just after the middle of the nineteenth century the name of Garibaldi was a familiar one in Great Britain, and to him was largely owing the successful revolution in Italy. The reformer, Mazzini, and the statesman, Cavour, were understood by only a few of the people, but the daring soldier's appeal reached every one. In England boys drilled their companions in imitation of his troops, whose "red shirts" set a new fashion in dress. For years Italy had groaned under Austrian tyranny and at first France helped in the struggle for freedom. There was a King of Sardinia, but most of the Italian states were governed by independent princes, and a few were among the possessions of the Holy See. After many delays and throwbacks the principalities united to become the Kingdom of Italy under Victor Emmanuel II.

In order to have all the country under one King, the armies of Garibaldi invaded and conquered the papal states, and they were annexed by the Crown. The Italian Parliament in 1861 declared Victor Emmanuel King of United Italy, and Florence, one of its most beautiful cities, was made the capital. Then it was determined to make Rome, itself the seat of the Pope, the centre of government and, deserted by France and the Italian people, the Holy Father (Pius IX.) commanded the papal troops to make but a formal show of resistance, and Victor Emmanuel entered Rome as sovereign ruler. Henceforth, the Holy See, stripped of her territories, largely the bequests of pious princes in bygone days, and despoiled of her revenues, stood and stands as the Supreme Spiritual Power of Christendom, but the Pope is no longer a temporal sovereign. As in the case of Cromwell and of William III. in our own country, and that of France in the eighteenth century, a successful revolution to abolish tyranny may, in sweeping away one wrong, introduce another.

Eastern Europe and Asia.—During these years there grew up an almost continual quarrel between Russia and Turkey, which led to a war between the two countries in 1877-78, and Russia was victorious. The British Government felt that the growing power of Russia was so dangerous that it led to an alliance between Great Britain and Turkey. At the **Congress of Berlin** an attempt was made to balance fairly the

BOOK V.—PUPIL'S

advantages of the peace, and the Balkan States, formerly under Turkish dominion, were declared independent (1878). The year before, Queen Victoria had been proclaimed Empress of India, and now there arose trouble with Afghanistan, through Russian interference, and an Afghan War was fought in 1879–80 which cost many British lives. Afghanistan, lying between India and Russia, was governed by an Amir, whose friendliness was doubted, and it was this war and its events which made the names of Kabul and Kandahar familiar to British ears. Turkey, as a Mohammedan power, is different in thought and civilization from the Christian nations, and Russia in opposing Turkish rule often posed as the champion of the rest of Europe.

Great Britain, however, has in India millions of Mohammedans as fellow-subjects with Britons, so that the question is a difficult one, and generally one political party supported Turkey and the other Russia until the close of the century.

Egypt and Great Britain.—During the years 1881–85 British people at home heard much about Egypt, where France and Great Britain had a “Dual Control.” The native ruler was the Khedive, and against him one Arabi Pasha led a revolt, and an army under Sir Garnet (afterwards Lord) Wolseley had to be sent to quell it (1882). Then, in the wide region of the Sudan to the south, a Mohammedan stirred up a religious rebellion. Claiming to be the successor of Mahommed he gathered immense forces,

and in suppressing the rising many British troops were killed. Presently the management of the affair was placed in the hands of a gifted and distinguished officer, General Gordon, respectfully nicknamed "Chinese Gordon" for the wonderful work he had done in pacifying rebels in China. But he arrived too late to gain influence with the Mohammedan fanatics, and soon the Mahdi's troops were besieging him and his tiny garrison in the mud-walled town of Khartum. A relief expedition was despatched too late, and before it arrived the garrison had fallen and Gordon was killed. His many services and generous love for lads of all nations are commemorated in the Gordon Memorial College just outside Khartum for the education of native boys, and there are similar foundations at home.

Ten years later the Sudan was again the scene of fighting, but under Sir Herbert (afterwards Lord) Kitchener the Mahdi was conquered and a settled government given to the country with training for its future independence.

The stirring verses of Rudyard Kipling (*Barrack Room Ballads*) are many of them on the themes of the outlying little wars of the British Empire in the later years of the nineteenth century.

Progress and Reform.—Among the many reforms during the latter half of the nineteenth century was that of providing schools everywhere so that no children should grow up unable to read or write. The Government at first supplemented, and then



Photo Chancellor and Son.

Queen Victoria.

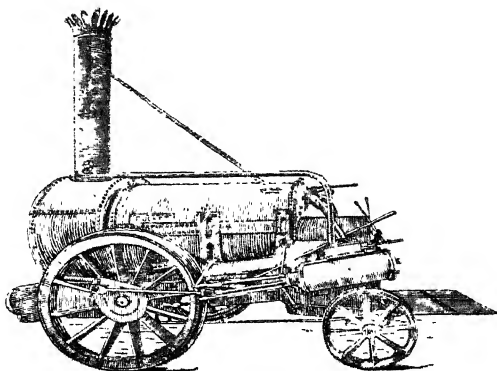
(From Tout's "A History of Great Britain." Book II.)

made itself responsible for, the education first provided by public-spirited people and religious societies. A great many schools were built by the State and maintained by public money and put under the management of committees or "Boards." Hence the term "Board" schools. Later they were placed under the charge of the local authorities and are known as "Council" or "Municipal" schools. Many scholarships and other helps are provided, so that any boy or girl who loves learning and works well has the chance of going on to more advanced schools or to the universities. And no child may be taken from school under the age of fourteen. In 1870 a Member of Parliament had to confess that "England is behind every other great nation in the matter of education," so that there was much to be done.

Another reform belongs to the treatment of disease and the maintenance of good health. Discoveries were made and new ways found out of curing, or better still of preventing, many of the diseases of olden days. Several of our English sovereigns died of that scourge, the small-pox, including Queen Mary (wife of William III.). So also did the little Duke of Gloucester, Princess Anne's last child, and James Edward Stewart was badly marked with it. Until within sixty years ago any London crowd showed numbers of faces thus disfigured. The value of pure water and cleanliness, of fresh air and sunlight has become known; open spaces are treasured, and stricter Government inspection of

factories and workshops has made them less unwholesome places to work in, even when the trades carried on are dangerous.

The railways, which soon followed the invention of the steam-engine, made travel both speedy and cheap, and the old ways by road died out. In 1830 Stephenson's "Puffing Billy" and the "Rocket"



The "Rocket."

(From Tout's "A History of Great Britain." Book II.)

were thought very dangerous, because they went at the rate of eight miles an hour. Fifty years later their magnificent descendants could take mails and passengers from London to Edinburgh at sixty miles an hour. And of late years steam, the giant, has had a powerful rival in electricity, which scientific men have learned to harness to our service ; and the

automobile (self-moving vehicle), fitted with its own tiny engine and supplied with petrol, has challenged the railway carriage and the horse-drawn conveyance alike.

The Penny Post, established early in the Queen's reign, was one of the most useful reforms of the century. It enabled people to keep in touch with each other and greatly benefited trade and intercourse generally. When the victory of Waterloo was won it was not known in many parts of Great Britain until three or four weeks afterwards. After the postage reform came the electric telegraph, quicker still; after the telegraph, the telephone, by which people can speak to each other across many miles. Out of these two inventions grew that of the "wireless" telegraphy, and the Broadcasting of speech and song to numberless hearers separated by great distances. The wireless communication is of the greatest use to ships at sea. Every large sea-going vessel with British sailors aboard must be fitted with the apparatus, a trained officer to work it, and the official code of signals. The first great use made of the system was in 1911, when a monster passenger ship struck an iceberg in the Atlantic one April day. Her signal of distress brought liners bearing down upon her from miles away, and through their promptness many lives were saved though the ship was sunk.

These last details have rather extended beyond the nineteenth century into the present one; but they were being perfected during the reign of Victoria

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and may justly be said to belong to that age of science.

Britain beyond the Seas.—*South Africa.*—Until 1852 Great Britain had only two colonies in South Africa—Cape Colony and Natal. These had been sparsely inhabited by Dutch settlers who moved farther inland as more British settlers entered the country. The discovery of diamonds in Griqualand led to great wealth and the arrival of many emigrant adventurers, and the district was annexed to Cape Colony. The Dutch (Boer) farmers were quite indifferent to mining wealth and asked only to be let alone; but in the Transvaal they had some very uncomfortable neighbours in the Zulu tribes. In 1878 the Home Government interfered in the interests of British settlers, and a Zulu war ensued. In this war the French Prince Imperial, who had lived in England since the war of 1871, served as an officer and was killed. The Zulus were defeated and the Transvaal annexed, but the Boers objected to British rule and proclaimed a Republic; so that the next stage of events saw war between the British forces and the Boers they had protected from the Zulus. In this the Boers conquered, thus winning back the independence of the Transvaal. This is known as the First Boer War.

During the next few years an explorer, Cecil Rhodes, discovered gold in the dominions of Lobengula, the Matabele King, and, as in old times, a Chartered Company was formed to work the mines,

and a rush of European settlers followed. Then quarrels arose between the native chiefs, and a British force intervened to end the trouble, and soon the great tract of land was called Rhodesia and added to the British dominions. To the Boers in the Transvaal the newcomers were "outlanders" and they would grant them no rights as citizens. This led to the attempt by British on the spot to get them by force,



The Victoria Cross
instituted in 1856.

and when it failed, to Boer defiance and our Government taking the matter up. Then followed the second Boer War (1899), when these resolute Dutch farmers under their patriarchal leader, President Kruger, soon had three generals of our army shut up in the primitive little towns of Ladysmith, Kimberley, and Mafeking. No one had expected so tough a fight; and our soldiers went out wrongly equipped, and their officers wrongly instructed as to the kind of country and the methods of warfare needed.

The winter of 1900-1901 was dark and sad at home, as the news came of repeated defeats and the loss of many lives. Queen Victoria died while the cloud of war was still heavy, and only in the middle of 1902 was the South African War really ended. Five years later self-government was granted to the Transvaal; and General Botha, one of the soldier-farmers who

had fought against us, was elected Premier and took the oath of allegiance to King Edward (1906). In 1910 the four self-governing colonies became independent as the **Union of South Africa**. Thus the Sovereign and Government of Great Britain handsomely reversed the policy of George III. and his ministers with the colonies of the past.

Australia.—The New Holland of Captain Cook's day (1770) had soon an inglorious beginning as the dumping-ground for convicts from British prisons, who had formerly been sent to the American "plantations." But within a few years enterprising English and Scottish farmers emigrated hopefully to the land which they heard had a fine climate and a fertile soil. The Governor of the colony wrote, in 1792: "I am convinced that Australia will prove the most valuable acquisition Great Britain ever made." Most exciting is the story of the early explorers of the country; of their search for rivers and their adventurous journeys over the great deserts of the interior. After the great rush of gold-seekers in the middle of the nineteenth century there was an increasing population who, by degrees, settled down to the cultivation of the land and the founding of the great industry which was to bring the country its future wealth. In cattle-rearing and sheep-farming the wide plains, unknown to white men a hundred years before, contribute to the food and clothing of the populations of the British Empire, and the modern towns which have grown up are planned on a large scale. Melbourne

is known as the "city of magnificent distances" for its open spaces and long boulevards. In the first year of the twentieth century the various states were united to form the **Commonwealth of Australia**, and the Duke and Duchess of York, our present King and Queen, opened its first Parliament in person.

New Zealand.—The story of New Zealand also began for British people as that of a Convict Settlement; and the daring spirits who escaped, and as "Bushrangers" played the part of highwaymen towards the settlers, are described in many books of adventure. The Maori, the tall, strong natives of the country, were by degrees won from hostility to friendship, and their chivalrous ways of fighting had earned respect. When peace was at length declared their Chiefs protested, "We have fought you well, and now we are friends for ever, for ever, for ever." The Governor, who had been the means of this good understanding, was the Prime Minister of New Zealand's first Parliament, and in the early years of the twentieth century the **Dominion of New Zealand** was proclaimed.

Hence it came about that when the mother-country needed help in the Great War, Australia and New Zealand undertook the defence of the seas around their coasts and sent thousands of able-bodied men to fight in the British armies. They, like the Dominion of Canada, are well content to be part of the British Empire, and the mother-country is

justly proud of her distant sons and daughters. Though separated by so many miles of space, they are brought near together by their common interests and the quick means of communication. Swift steamships pass continually over the seas, bearing passengers and cargoes, and the uncrowded acres of the Dominions offer splendid opportunity to the spirited young men and women of the Homeland to embark on a freer and more independent manner of life than is possible in Great Britain itself. The sheep-farming and cattle-raising of Australia, the dairying and farm-lands of New Zealand, the immense wheat-growing expanse of Canada, and the fruit-farming of South Africa all need further help from intelligent human industry and British energy.

Here we have again anticipated by a few years the record of the later events in colonial history ; but though the happy results belong to the present century they were prepared for, and led up to, during the closing years of the reign of Queen Victoria.

Questions and Exercises

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION (1899)

1. What advantages have machines over hands ? And factory-work over home-work ? What are some of the drawbacks ?
2. Where are the great (1) metal, (2) woollen, (3) cotton industries ? Where were they in King Charles I.'s reign ?
3. Who spoke and worked for Catholic Emancipation ? Who opposed it ?
4. What were : (1) The Reform Bill ; (2) the People's Charter ; (3) the Factory Acts ?

5. Read some of the stories about Great Inventions, *or* The First Railways.

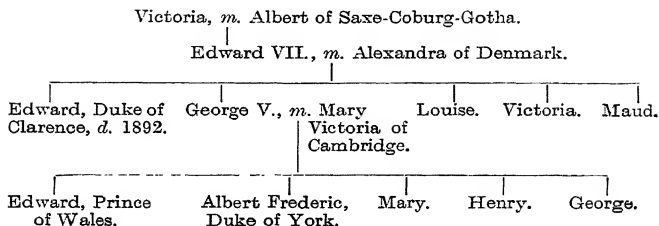
6. What do you know of: (1) Florence Nightingale; (2) William Gladstone; (3) Bismarck?

7. On a map of India find the places mentioned in the story of the Indian Mutiny.

8. Describe a day in the life of a girl or boy in 1799 in London, *or* in the country; and the same of one in 1899.

9. Find some books in the Public Library about: (1) General Gordon; (2) Lord Kitchener; (3) Sister Dora.

CHAPTER XVII

THE TWENTIETH CENTURY (1901–1925)

The Royal House.—Queen Victoria lived to have a longer reign than any other sovereign in our history. In 1887 the whole nation and her dominions beyond the sea shared in rejoicings at her Jubilee; and when, ten years later, her Diamond Jubilee of sixty years was celebrated the universal gladness was even more marked. Throughout the land in every town and village some memorial may be seen which records each of those great occasions. Throughout her reign the Queen had set herself to consider the welfare of her people and, though her ministers were actually responsible for what was done, nothing took place without the Queen's interest and good judgment being shown.

Her Majesty had lived in great retirement for many years after the death of the Prince Consort (1861) and the Prince of Wales undertook the social and ceremonial duties which belong to a popular monarch. In this he was well aided by the Princess who, in 1863, came from Denmark to be his bride. In his "Ode of Welcome" Tennyson, the Poet Laureate, sang, "Danes are we all in our welcome of thee," and both as Princess and Queen she was admired and beloved. So that when in January, 1901, the aged Queen passed away her son and his consort were experienced in many royal labours.

After a reign of sixty-four years, during which her dominions had immensely increased, Queen Victoria was laid to rest beside the coffin of the Prince Consort in the Royal Mausoleum near Windsor. By her own wish the bier upon which she was carried through the streets of London was a gun-carriage draped with the national flag. In the mourning procession the new King, Edward VII., rode with his brothers at the head of kings and princes from all the royal houses of Europe. Every friendly land (and at the moment all lands were friendly) sent representatives to do honour to the memory of the great Queen, and they passed through a capital full of the signs of mourning, to the dull roll of muffled drums and the tramp of many feet, along miles of streets, thronged with a respectful and sorrowing people.

Summary.

EDWARD THE SEVENTH.

1901	Edward VII. began to reign.
1907	A conference of Colonial Premiers was held in London. The Dominion of New Zealand was proclaimed.
1908	The Old Age Pensions Act became law.
1910	King Edward VII. died.

Edward the Seventh.—The Coronation of the King was delayed for some months on account of his severe illness and, when it was performed in August, the ceremony was quiet and brief to save him fatigue. At once the King took up his task as ruler. In the spring of the next year he opened Parliament in person, and delighted his people by placing the Queen beside him in the imposing ceremony, and by announcing that Her Majesty was to be known as the Queen, not as the Queen Consort.

While Prince of Wales the King had travelled round the world and more than once through his wide dominions, and one of the most important gatherings of his short reign was the Conference of Prime Ministers from all the British colonies. In this were discussed many matters of imperial concern, as well as the relations of Great Britain to foreign states. Thus publicly and handsomely the old attitude of the mother-country was abandoned; her colonies overseas are known as grown-up responsible sons and daughters, not as unruly dependents. In the year of the King's accession his son, the Duke of York, our present sovereign, had visited the



Photo : W. and D. Downey,

57 Ebury Street, S.W.

King Edward VII.

(From Gardiner's "Outline of English History.")

Dominions with the Duchess, and had opened the first Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia. Just before the conference New Zealand had become a Dominion, and soon after it the South African colonies were granted independence as the Union of South Africa.

The King had also a wide knowledge of European affairs and had often been abroad. As sovereign, unlike the conditions of his Georgian predecessors, the necessary permission of Parliament to absent himself from Great Britain was only a formality. He was greatly admired and respected in France, and was the means of removing the long-standing grudge between Great Britain and that country. The good understanding (*l'Entente cordiale*) led to French and English people getting to know one another better and to respect, instead of laughing at, their different customs and manners. Such weight had the King's kindly thought and good judgment with other nations that the unofficial title was bestowed on him of "Edward the Peacemaker." In 1910 this monarch, who had won the hearts of all his people, died, and the Duke of York, his eldest surviving son, became King as George V.

Further Reforms.—One of the happiest of the many thoughtful reforms of the present day came about in time for the coronation of George V. This was the taking out of the oath, which the sovereign swears before being crowned, the offensive words about the Catholic Faith. They belonged to the

angry, narrow thought of the Protestant Revolution and did nothing to make the Protestant succession any more secure. By an Act of Parliament it was resolved that the ancient Faith of the nation and that of thousands of loyal subjects of the present time need no longer be insulted by repeating this outworn relic of bitterness.

Both the great parties, Conservative and Liberal, were busy during the years of peace (1910-14) in planning measures for the good of the people, and they were greatly helped and inspired in this by the growing strength of the Labour party. There were devised improved ways of collecting taxes; a great reform in land-owning and tenancy; the Factory Acts were altered to cover the new industries and women inspectors were appointed; hours of work were shortened; the safety of miners and of other workers in dangerous trades more carefully guarded; and the health of the workers especially considered. And certainly only very careless or very selfish people could be content to know that the high polish on their china cups and saucers meant lead-poisoning to those who glazed them, or that the convenient matches that light their fires brought painful diseases to those who made them.

Then the old Poor Law was looked into and some changes made so that age and misfortune should not be treated quite as crimes. An Act of Parliament gave Old Age Pensions; the old people, invalids, and children in the Poor Law Institutions and

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Infirmaries (which used to be called "Workhouses" or "The Union") were given more care and attention; and the sick poor outside provided with medicine and treatment without being made to feel themselves paupers. For many years thrifty people of all classes had belonged to Insurance and Benefit Societies, which in times of misfortune returned their payments, and in 1911 a great system of National Insurance was set up by Act of Parliament for every one who earns his or her living in the employ of another. The State adds money to that contributed by employers and employees, and in time of need the worker can draw upon the fund.

Much was done for education. In 1891 the Primary Schools had been made free; in the new century the State set aside money to provide many scholarships in the Secondary Schools for able boys and girls to stay at school till they are sixteen. The great city companies (many of them the descendants of the mediæval Guilds), who are always generous to young citizens, gave further sums, and so likewise did the Councils of the local authorities, towards technical colleges and more advanced schools.

Two other fine things must be mentioned. Though not exactly "schools" they are capital forms of education, in helping boys and girls to learn how to do things in a masterly way. These are the Boy Scouts and the Girl Guides. The idea and the working out of the "Scouts" are due to Sir

Robert Baden-Powell, one of the generals who fought in the Boer War. He found that in the untrodden ways of South Africa there were many tremendously interesting things which a townsman never saw or heard ; and also the country people we were fighting against were much cleverer in many ways than the British soldiers who had lived protected lives in crowded towns. He determined to make British boys know something of field and country lore, and to practise and enjoy roughing it. When a dull exercise in geometry became a way of measuring the width of a river, and another a way of telling the time, many a boy woke up to the fun, and to the interesting things around him. To be a Scout soon was found to be more desirable than to be a pirate.

Then Miss Baden-Powell took up the work for girls, and skill in housecraft and fingercraft was seen to be worth having. And it came about that during the Great War, a few years later, both Scouts and Guides had ample opportunity for usefulness, and won much honour and credit for their order.

The Great War.—In 1914 there began the most terrible war in history. At first it seemed that there was a quarrel between Austria and the Balkan State of Serbia, which could hardly concern Great Britain. But when Germany joined one, and Russia joined the other and both declared war, the dispute spread like a raging fire. Soon it was seen that Germany meant

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to invade France, and had prepared great armies and immense guns and quantities of ammunition. When this strong military power tramped into little Belgium, which all the great European countries had promised to protect, Great Britain united with France to oppose her enemy.

As time went on nearly all the countries in Europe had taken sides with the "Allies" or with the "Central Powers" (Austria and Germany); and as the Turks joined with Germany, the war went on in the East as well as in the West; on all the seas; and, indeed, throughout the whole world. The small army with which Great Britain began, was soon increased by troops sent from all her dominions and dependencies—the colonies great and small, India, and South Africa—for all, like loyal sons and daughters, were ready to support the mother-country in her need.

How the war went on, month after month; how all able-bodied men became soldiers or sailors, and their places in factory, foundry, workshop, and office, were taken by women, or even children; how thousands of our brave men died on the many battle-fields, and other thousands were brought home sorely wounded; how every great building that could be used became a hospital; and how the ranks of army nurses were strengthened with hundreds of voluntary women helpers; these and the many other strange and thrilling things may be read in the stories of the Great War.

All ordinary life was altered ; everything had to give way to the need for men ; and for money, food, clothes, and weapons for the fighters. Nearly all peaceful trades came to a standstill, and only munitions or other warlike things were made. The enemy air-raids led to darkened streets and hushed noises ; and the people of London and the south of England heard again the sound of foreign guns which had not been heard since the Dutch wars in the seventeenth century. Belgium and Northern France had become one vast battle plain, and the roar of the massive guns came plainly across the narrow sea.

Though the King did not actually fight in the war, he often visited his troops and his ships, and the Prince of Wales was all the time on the Western Front. His young brothers at home entered into everything that was done for the supply and training of fresh troops, for the comfort and aid of the wounded and sorrowful, and for the carrying-on of the national life. The Princess Mary, only daughter of the King and Queen, was trained as a nurse and gave up her whole time to the service of the hospitals. When, through the sinking of our food-ships by the enemy, everything became scarce, the royal household under Princess Mary's control set an example of strict economy. This thrifty living became the rule everywhere. Children at table, who will one day remember to tell their grandchildren, were taught to say a new grace : " Thank God and the British navy for my good dinner." Very few people, and they were very

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anxious ones, knew how nearly we were coming to the end of our "good dinners."

In 1917 Russia went out of the war and a terrible revolution took place in the country. The Czar and the Czarina were cruelly murdered and a savage Government set up a reign of terror. In the same year the United States of America came into the war; they felt that no longer could they stand out of the fight for freedom and civilization. Their help was valuable, and though the enemy tried to belittle it, it hastened the end, for no longer could neutral countries be drawn upon for food for the German armies and the German people.

On November 11, 1918, after more than four years of war, the Armistice was signed and the fighting between France and Germany ended, strangely enough, at Sedan, the spot where in 1871 France was conquered. The German Emperor, the sometime War-Lord, fled to Holland with his family, and a Republic was set up in Prussia. The Austrian Empire fell to pieces and new small states were made under independent governments. The following year a Treaty of Peace was signed at Versailles in the hall where, in 1871, William II. had been proclaimed German Emperor. But much is still to be done to make good the terrible destruction of those years of war, especially in France, and to remove the feeling of hatred and revenge which led to it.

Every allied country has an enormous National Debt through the money cost of the war; every one

mourns the deaths of thousands of brave men, mostly young, and misses them in the place they should now be taking in the national life. Each year on November 11 throughout Great Britain there is observed a silence at eleven o'clock for two minutes, that every one may be reminded of their great sacrifice. And as a special homage to the Glorious Dead, besides the war monuments which stand in every country, each of the Allied nations has buried the body of an Unknown Warrior in the most honoured place in its capital.

In the hope of preventing war in future there was founded in 1919 a League of Nations, for the settlement of disputes before each party becomes angry and perhaps unjust. Meanwhile, the British King and Parliament have taken a great step forward in the way of removing grievances and preventing quarrels, by granting to Southern Ireland independence. As the Irish Free State, with the political standing of a Dominion, the greater part of Catholic Ireland is free from British rule. Northern Ireland has its representatives still in the British Parliament and its own Premier and Parliament (Home Rule).

In 1924 a British Empire Exhibition was held near London. It was immensely larger than the International Exhibition of 1851, and consisted only of products and manufactures within the Empire. These were arranged in spacious courts and buildings which copied exactly the places from which they

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came. Numbers of people, equal to half the population of the British Isles, visited the Exhibition, a very large proportion of them being children. To every one it was a most interesting and impressive lesson in the geography, products, industry, and art of the British Empire.

Questions and Exercises

TWENTIETH CENTURY.

1. What is a Royal Jubilee? What have you seen anywhere which commemorates one?

2. What do you think the most valuable reform, and the most wonderful invention since 1860?

3. What are the following: (1) Broadcast; (2) Cinema; (3) Jam-boree; (4) Scout Law; (5) League of Nations; (6) Armistice Day?

4. Plan a journey to (1) Canada, or (2) Barbadoes; [railway, ship, ports, calling-places, etc.] and say what you would like to bring back.

5. Write a letter to a schoolboy or girl in New Zealand, describing your ordinary life, school, work, journeys, games, etc.

6. Find out something about the wonderful discoveries in Egypt, or of the voyages of exploration in Arctic seas.

Interesting Books about the people and events of which this history book has told you.

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

In the Golden Days (E. Lyall). *Shepperton Manor* (J. M. Neale). *In a Royal Nursery* (G. Hollis). *For Rupert and the King* (H. Hayens). *Too Near the Throne* (A. Fox). *The Royalist Brothers* (E. Crake). *The King's Double* (E. Cowper). *The Fortunes of Harry Borlase* (J. Graeme). *The Carved Cartoon* (A. Clare). *For Faith and Freedom* (Besant and Rice). *Holmby House* (Whyte Melville). *The Splendid Spur* (Q.). *Rupert, by the Grace of God* (D. McChesney). *The Trail of the Sword* (G. Parker). *Lorna Doone* (R. Blackmore).

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

Whither? (D. Townshend). *Under the Blue Flag* (M. Palgrave). *Glory of War* (H. Hinkson). *The House with the Dragon Gates* (E. Cowper). *The Moonrakers* (E. Cowper). *The Marquis' Heir* (A. Biggs). *In Perilous Days* (C. Bearne). *Tale of Two Cities* (C. Dickens).

Bride of Lammermoor (W. Scott). *Heart of Midlothian* (W. Scott). *Like another Helen* (Sydney Grier). *Balmoral* (A. Allardyce). *The Begum's Daughter* (E. Bynne). *Dorothy Forster* (W. Besant). *A Jacobite Exile* (G. Henty). *The Battle of the Strong* (G. Parker). *Two Chiefs of Dunbony* (J. Foulkes). *Up for the Green* (H. Hinkson). *Croppies Lie Down* (W. Buckley). *The Orange Girl* (W. Besant).

NINETEENTH CENTURY.

A Boy of the Old Brigade (J. Greene). *For England ! For France !* (F. Harrison). *The Captain of the Waterguard* (E. Cowper). *Sylvia's Lovers* (C. Gaskell). *Put Yourself in His Place* (Charles Reade). *A Brave Girl* (A. Jackson). *Livingstone, the Empire Builder* (J. Staunton Batty). *Florence Nightingale* (E. F. Hall). *Elsie Inglis* (E. McLaren). *Rodney Stone* (Conan Doyle). *Springhaven* (R. Blackmore). *Afloat with Nelson* (C. Eden). *Boy Soldiers of 1812* (E. Tomlinson). *St. Ives* (R. L. Stevenson). *Robbery under Arms* (Rolf Boldrewood). *Farthest North* (F. Nansen). *Romance of Empire* (Sir Philip Gibbs).

"LORD of our fathers, Thou didst blend
Of divers strains our stubborn race ;
Thou, at the old world's wind-swept end,
Didst plant us in our sea-girt place,
To learn chill rigour from the drift,
Grim patience from the warring wave ;
Thou mad'st us swift, as winds are swift,
And brave, as rocks and seas are brave.

Then, as we fared in straitened ways,
Thou didst outpour us, bad'st us roam,
That we might claim the tropic rays,
And call the icebound ocean home.
Like seed we fell, like seed we sprang,
Till half the world, where'er we rose,
With Britain's joys and sorrows rang,
And freedom's foes were Britain's foes."

A. C. BENSON : *Empire Hymn*.

TIME CHART

TIME CHART

GREAT BRITAIN.	IRELAND.	FOREIGN.
1603 James VI. (Scots) King as James I.	1602 Submission of O'Neill.	1608 Religious Wars in German States.
1604-5 Plots and conspiracies: Main, Bye, Gunpowder.	1611 Ulster colonized with Scots and English. Irish banished.	1610 Louis XIII. King of France.
1606 Repression of Catholics.		1615-29 Huguenot Wars in France.
1617 Raleigh's expedition to Guiana.		1618 Thirty Years' War began.
1604-21 Disputes between King and Parliaments on: i. rights of Parliament; ii. taxation; iii. monopolies.		
1608-20 Settlement of Colonists in Barbadoes, Virginia, New England.		
1625 Charles I. King. Three Parliaments dissolved in three years.		
1629 No Parliament for eleven years.		
1630 Wentworth, President of North.		
1633 Laud Abp. of Canterbury.	1633 Wentworth in Ireland.	1643 Louis XIV. King of France.
1635 Ship-money levied.		1644 Innocent X. Pope.
1640-60 Long Parliament.		1645 Tsardom of Russia founded.
1641 Strafford (Wentworth) executed.	1641 Insurrection and Massacres.	
1642-49 Civil War.		
1649 Charles I. executed. Charles II. crowned at Scone. Commonwealth established.	1649 Charles II. proclaimed King.	

Seventeenth Century.

1650 Cromwell in Scotland.	1649-50 Cromwell in Ireland.
1651 Charles II. escaped to France.	Massacres at Drogheda, Wexford, Dublin.
1652 War with Holland.	Catholics sent to West Indies as slaves.
1653 Naval Victories of Blake.	1654 Colonization of Ireland by Scots and English.
1654 Scotland and Ireland incorporated with England.	
1656 War with Spain.	1650 Louis XIV. married Maria Theresa.
1658 Richard Cromwell Protector.	1662 Louis XIV. bought Dunkirk from England.
1660 The Restoration. Charles II. King. Clarendon Chief Minister.	1673 75 Turks defeated by Sobieski, Polish patriot.
1661-65 Various Acts against Catholics and Dissenters (Clarendon Code).	1676-97 War between France and Netherlands.
1665-74 War with Holland.	William of Orange leader of Protestants.
1667 Cabal Ministry.	1678 Louis XIV. paid pension to Charles II.
1678 Titus Oates and his "Popish Plot."	1685 Revocation of Edict of Nantes.
1685 James II. King.	1696 Peter the Great, Tsar of Russia.
1687 Declaration of Indulgence.	1692-97 European countries united to oppose Louis XIV.
1689 William III. and Mary made joint rulers.	
Declaration of Rights and Act of Succession.	
1692 Massacre of Glencoe.	
	1681 Alop. of Armagh executed.
	1690 Resistance to William III. crushed at battle of the Boyne.
	1692 Severe penal laws made against Catholics. Treaty of Limerick. Protestant Parliament imposed freer trade restrictions.

GREAT BRITAIN.	IRELAND.	FOREIGN.
1702 Anne became Queen. 1707 Treaty of Union with Scotland. 1706-9 Marlborough's Victories in Netherlands. 1714 George I. King. 1715 Jacobite Rising (James III.). Penal laws enforced against Catholics. 1727 George II. King. Hostility between French and British in England and America. 1743 George II. at Dettingen. 1745 Jacobite Rising (Charles Edward). 1746 Jacobitism crushed at Culloden. 1756-63 Olive's Victories in India and Wolfe's in Canada. Pitt Prime Minister. 1760 George III. King. Bute Prime Minister. 1765-75 Dispute with American Colonies. 1775-83 War of Independence and Declaration. 1780 "Gordon" riots against Catholics. 1797 Naval victories of Jervis and Duncan. 1798 Nelson won battle of the Nile.	1757 A Catholic Committee formed to appeal against Penal laws. 1779 Free Trade demanded. 1782 Grattan's Parliament formed. 1798 Great Rebellion; fiercely subdued.	1700 Clement XI. Pope. 1702 Frederick III. of Brandenburg King of Prussia. 1703-14 War of Spanish Succession. Louis XIV. supported exiled Stewart. 1713 Treaty of Utrecht. 1715 Louis XV. King of France. 1740 Frederick the Great King of Prussia. 1741-48 War of Austrian Succession. 1756-63 Seven Years' War. 1774 Louis XVI. King of France. 1775 Pius VI. Pope. 1775-83 France and Spain supported Colonies against Britain. 1783 Peace of Versailles. 1789 French Revolution. 1793 King and Queen beheaded. 1797 Napoleon's Victories in Europe. 1799 Napoleon First Consul. 1800 Pius VII. Pope.

1801 United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland formed.	1801 Free Trade granted.	1804 Napoleon made Emperor.
1805 Nelson won battle of Trafalgar.	23 Peers and 100 Commons to sit in Parliament at Westminster.	1805 " " King of Italy.
1808-13 Wellesley commander in Peninsular War against Napoleon.	1803 Emmott's Rising.	1807 " " supreme in Europe.
1815 Allies victorious at Waterloo.		1812 " " invaded Russia.
1820 George IV., King.		1814 " " defeated at Toulouse.
1829 Catholic Emancipation granted.	1829 Repeal of Union demanded.	1814 " " at Elba; returned.
1830 William IV., King.		1815 " " banished to St. Helena.
1832 Reform Bill passed.		1821 War of Greek Independence.
1833 First Factory Bill passed.		1823 Leo XII Pope.
Slavery abolished in British dominions.		1830 Separation of Holland and Belgium.
1834 Amendment of Poor Law.		Louis Philippe King of France.
1837 Victoria became Queen.		1840 Fredk. William IV. King of Prussia.
1838 People's Charter drawn up.		1846 Pius IX. Pope.
1840 Penny Postage adopted.	1846 Coercion Bill passed.	1848 Second French Republic.
1846 Corn Laws repealed.	1847 Great famine.	Louis Napoleon President.
1850 Catholic Hierarchy restored.	Death of O'Connell.	Francis Joseph I. Emperor of Austria.
1851 Great Exhibition in Hyde Park.		1852 Louis Napoleon III. Emperor of France.
1854-6 Crimean War.		1856 Peace of Paris ended Crimean War.
1857 Indian Mutiny.		1859 Italian War of Liberation.
War with China.		1861-65 American Civil War.
1861-63 Cotton Famine through American Civil War.	1860-67 Fenian Risings.	1861 William I. King of Prussia.
1867 Disraeli's Reform Bill passed.	1869 Disestablishment of Protestant Church in Ireland.	
1870 Compulsory Education Act.	1870 Irish Land Bill passed.	
1878 Catholic Hierarchy restored in Scotland.		
1879 Zulu War in South Africa.		

GREAT BRITAIN.	IRELAND.	FOREIGN.
<p>1884 Frauchie Bill passed.</p> <p>1887 Queen Victoria's First Jubilee.</p> <p>1897 Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee.</p> <p>1899 South African War.</p> <p>1901 Edward VII. King.</p> <p>1904 <i>Entente Cordiale</i> with France.</p> <p>1907 Imperial Colonial Conference.</p> <p>1909 New Zealand a Dominion.</p> <p>1909 Union of South Africa formed.</p>	<p>1886 Gladstone's Home Rule Bill rejected.</p> <p>1887 Coercion Act enforced.</p> <p>1893 Gladstone's Second Home Rule Bill rejected.</p>	<p>1861 Victor Emmanuel King of United Italy.</p> <p>1862 Bismarck, Prussian Premier.</p> <p>1870-71 Franco-Prussian War.</p> <p>1871 William I. declared German Emperor.</p> <p>Third Republic of France.</p> <p>M. Thiers first President.</p> <p>Rome made Capital of Italy.</p> <p>1873-75 Jesuits expelled from Germany.</p> <p>"Kultur-Kampf" instituted.</p> <p>1877 Russo-Turkish War</p> <p>1878 Leo XIII. Pope.</p> <p>1885 State Insurance for Workers in Germany.</p> <p>1888 William II. Emperor.</p> <p>1890 German Emperor Protector of Turkey.</p> <p>Berlin - Bagdad Railway projected.</p> <p>1896 Turkish massacre of Armenians.</p> <p>1904 Russo-Japanese War.</p> <p>1905 Religious Orders expelled from France.</p> <p>1909 Germany demanded control of Serbia for Berlin-Bagdad Railway.</p>

Nineteenth Century.

Twentieth Century.

- 1908 Old Age Pensions established.
 1911 Payment of Members of Parliament instituted.
 1910-14 Home Rule Bills passed.

- 1911 German Alliance with Turkey.
 1912-14 War between Turkey and Balkan States.

THE WORLD WAR.

- 1914-1918
- 1914 Austria declares war on Serbia. Russia undertakes to protect Serbia. Germany declares war on Russia.
 Germans invade France and Belgium. Britain declares war on Germany (August 4).
 Battles in Belgium and Northern France; Fall of Antwerp.
 Naval battles: Coronel, Falkland Islands. War in Mesopotamia. Italy declares war on Austria.
 1915 Gallipoli landings. Battles with Turks.
 1916 Naval battle of Jutland. Battle of the Somme. Emperor Francis Joseph died.
 1917 Capture of Bagdad. Revolution in Russia. United States declare war on Germany. Jerusalem taken.
 1918 Naval attacks on Zeebrugge and Ostend. Allied victories in Balkans. Hindenburg Line broken. Surrender of Bulgaria and Austria.
 Abdication of Kaiser William II. Armistice signed (November 11).
 1919 Peace Treaty signed at Versailles.

Political Summary: Austria and Germany became Republics. Hungary became independent. Germany restored Alsace-Lorraine to France; Polish territories to Poland; N. Schleswig to Denmark, and gave up all her colonies.
 Austria restored the Trentino, etc., to Italy.
 Serbia and four other Balkan States united to become Yugo-Slavia.
 Bohemia with other territories became the Free State of Czecho-Slovakia.
 Turkey-in-Europe consists only of Constantinople and Adrianople.

PRINTED IN ENGLAND BY
WILLIAM CLOWES AND SONS, LIMITED,
BECCLES.

THE GRIP-FAST HISTORY BOOKS

BOOK V

TEACHER'S BOOK

Period 1603—1925

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LONGMANS, GREEN AND CO.
39 PATERNOSTER ROW, LONDON, E.C.4.
NEW YORK, TORONTO
BOMBAY, CALCUTTA, AND MADRAS

1925

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Made in Great Britain

THE GRIP-FAST HISTORY BOOKS

NOTES FOR LESSONS 1603-1660

1. The Stewart Succession.

At the death of Elizabeth there were three possible claimants to the throne :

1. A descendant of a sister of Henry VIII.
2. A descendant of the House of York.
3. A descendant of the House of Lancaster.

Robert Cecil, Elizabeth's minister, saw that the first-named had the strongest title. He was James VI. of Scotland, great-grandson of James IV. and Margaret, the sister of Henry VIII. A peaceful proclamation of the Stewart King was made as James I. of England. The crowns of England and Scotland were thus united, but neither the Churches nor the Parliaments.

2. The Foreign Policy of James I. and Charles I.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS

England.

James I. 1603.
Charles I. 1625.

France.

Henry IV. (Bourbon) 1589.
Louis XIII. 1610.
Louis XIV. 1643.

There were two reasons why England was concerned in Continental matters: one religious, the other political. For political reasons James had married his daughter Elizabeth to the Elector Frederick, the leader of the

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Protestant States ; and tried to arrange that his son (at first Prince Henry, and after his death Prince Charles) should marry the Infanta of Spain. When this plan failed, the French Princess Henrietta Maria was chosen.

The Huguenots in France resembled the Puritans in England, and their struggle for religious freedom won Protestant sympathy. Hence Buckingham's unsuccessful expedition to La Rochelle (1627). This was the last occasion for many years of England's interference in foreign wars.

3. The Growth of the Power of Parliament.

This was due to two principal causes :

1. The attempt at " absolute " government on the part of the monarchs ; and
2. The Puritan spirit which coupled political freedom with religious freedom.

Parliament had a strong position in that it made the grants of revenue ; it became stronger through the King trying to get money in other ways, which by degrees Parliament put down. " No grants without redress of grievances," was the motto of the Commons. These grievances included, not only the King's claim to fix the " customs dues " on imported goods, but also the conduct of Buckingham, applying martial law to citizens, " innovations " in religion (Archbishop Laud's reforms), and imprisonment of subjects without trial.

James I.'s Thirrd Parliament demanded that :

- (1) The proposed Spanish marriage should be dropped ;
- (2) That penal laws against Catholics should be enforced.

The King tore out the leaves recording these demands in the Journals of the House (1621).

Charles I.'s Third Parliament presented the *Petition of Right* (1628) and was dissolved.

No Parliament was called for eleven years.

The Long Parliament (1640) :

- (1) Attainted Strafford and Laud ;
- (2) Supported Hampden's refusal to pay ship-money ;

- (3) Claimed control of the King's ministers and the militia ;
- (4) Formed an army to defend the country against its King.

This Parliament lasted for twenty years (*i.e.* no other was legally summoned), but it underwent various changes :

1645. Split into Independents *v.* Presbyterians.
1649. Reduced to sixty members (the Rump).
1651. Forcibly removed by Cromwell.
1653. Reconstituted (Barebones' Parliament).
1654. Had Scottish and Irish members.
1657. Formed into Upper and Lower Houses.
1659. The Rump (forty members) recalled.

It must be clearly understood that these Parliaments in no way "represented" the nation. They consisted of country landowners and squires, town merchants and traders ; citizens and villagers had no representatives.

Cromwell found the same difficulty as the sovereigns ; the power to grant or refuse supplies made them as intractable to him as to them. The weakness of the Parliaments lay in their breaking up into parties ; the Puritans, who began the political reforms, became the fanatical Roundheads and allies of the Covenanters.

4. The Religious Difficulty.

The disappointed hopes of the Catholics when James I. agreed to maintain the "Recusancy" fines and the Penal Laws led to various fanatical plots :

- (1) To kidnap the King (the Bye-plot, 1603).
- (2) To place Arabella Stuart (descended from Princess Margaret's second husband) on the throne. In this Raleigh was implicated (Main Plot, 1604).
- (3) Gunpowder Plot (1605).

These in turn provoked harsher measures, and a system of spies and informers was established—a "Secret Service" for penetrating into the homes of the people and betraying those who sheltered Catholic priests. Lingard, in his history, quotes a document giving the names of more than thirty priests thus seized between 1640 and 1651, when the

popular indignation at the earlier plots must have died down.

The Puritans, however divided in other matters, were always united in banning "popery and prelacy," and were strong enough to oppose the royal control of the Church of England and Laud's ecclesiastical reforms in its worship and ceremonies. With their stern abstinence from anything joyous or pleasant, they cultivated a censorious spirit which condemned and put down the popular amusements of town and country, and a solemn affectation in dress and speech and gesture marked them off from their fellow-countrymen.

5. The Civil War.

One or two constitutional points may be noted :

1. The Militia of the seventeenth century was the equivalent of the old English *fyrð* ; *i.e.* it consisted of local levies.
2. In London it consisted of the "trained bands" and was under the Lord Mayor ; in the counties it was under the Lords-Lieutenant.

Thus, when war broke out there was military support in all districts ; and the claim of Parliament to control the Militia was answered by the King issuing the old formula of a "Commission of Array." Hence Royalists flocked to his summons and Puritans to that of Parliament. The spirited Queen Henrietta Maria fetched (in person) help from Holland ; the Oxford colleges (the King's headquarters, court, and Parliament) melted down their plate for his service. The royal forces were mostly in the north and the west of the country, but the Parliament held the chief ports.

There were three chief periods of the Civil War : the first two in England against Charles I., the third in Scotland and Ireland against Charles II. who was there proclaimed King.

Period I.

Royalist successes :

1642. Edgehill (advantage with the King ; the Puritan, Sir Edmund Henry, killed).

1643. Chalgrove Field (Tamworth, Lichfield, Bristol taken ; Hampden killed).
 1643. Newbury (the London Trained Bands distinguished themselves).
 1644. Cropredy Bridge (secured Oxford and West Country for the King).

In the Royalist Parliament were about sixty peers and three hundred commons ; at Westminster ten peers and a hundred commons. Cromwell sent back to their duties (Self-denying Ordinance) his unsuccessful commanders, reserving the control to himself and Fairfax.

Parliamentary Victories :

1644. Marston Moor (the Ironsides of Cromwell's training).
 1644. Newbury (2) (the success led to Montrose assembling the Scottish clans).
 1645. Naseby (Charles on his way north utterly defeated).

The King then sought to make terms with the Scots army, who held him as hostage for arrears of pay due from Parliament. He was offered his realm again if he :

- (1) Would take the Covenant ,
- (2) Establish Presbyterianism ;
- (3) Hand over control of Militia to Parliament for twenty years.

On his rejecting the terms he became the prisoner of Parliament, or, rather, of the Army, but escaped, during the quarrel between Army and Parliament, to the Isle of Wight.

Period II.

1648. Royalist risings in Kent and Essex subdued by Fairfax.
 Detachments of Scots Royalists defeated at Preston by Cromwell.

Period III: Royalist risings in Ireland and Scotland :

1649. Storming and massacre of Drogheda by Cromwell's forces.
 Derry, Ulster, and Wexford similarly raided.

Waterford besieged; resistance compelled withdrawal of Cromwell's arms.

1650. Montrose was defeated by Argyle commanding the Government troops.

Cromwell was made Lord-General of Scotland, and at Dunbar shattered the Scottish troops under Leslie.

1651. Leslie of Stirling led his forces south, and reached Worcester, there to be overwhelmed by Cromwell's pursuing army.

The rest of the Civil War was at sea. Vane and Blake cleared the Mediterranean of Prince Rupert's fleet, and chased the last of his ships from the West Indies.

6. The Army and the Parliament.

By the time he was proclaimed Protector, Cromwell had adopted all those methods of tyrannical government against which he had previously urged his countrymen to rebel. The Rump Parliament, for claiming authority over national affairs, including the Army, was forcibly dismissed. The symbol of authority, the mace, was summarily removed: "Take away that bauble!" and the House closed. The Barebones' Parliament of a few months later was superseded by a military despotism. The whole of England was mapped out into ten districts, each under a Major-General; their authority swamped what little remained of local government. These years of promised liberty, but actual military tyranny, so stamped into the national mind the horror of Army control that a Standing Army was most reluctantly permitted in years to come. Parliamentary control is assured by the annual passing of the Mutiny Act, and only in times of urgent need will the British people tolerate either a large army or the method of conscription for providing it.

7. The Restoration.

Though resolved to restore the monarchy, the nation through the Convention Parliament, safeguarded popular and parliamentary rights. Charles II. was required to promise:

- (1) An amnesty covering all who had opposed him, if now they accepted him ;
- (2) Toleration of religious beliefs (except Catholicism) ;
- (3) Government by and through Parliament.

FOR EACH OF THE SECTIONS THE FOLLOWING BOOKS MAY BE CONSULTED :

Lingard's *History of England*.

Chesterton's *Short History of England*.

Keatinge and Frazer's *Documents from British History*.

Traill's *Social History of England*.

Fraser-Tytler's *History of Scotland*.

Joyce's *History of Ireland*.

Stephen Gwynn's *History of Ireland*.

The *National Song Book for Schools* contains a good selection of patriotic Scottish and Irish songs, and should be freely used for quotation and recitation.

THE RESTORED MONARCHY

NOTES FOR LESSONS 1660-1688

- 1. The Crown and the Parliament.** [*Chiefly political, to illustrate conditions rather than for lessons.*]

It is part of the royal prerogative to *summon* and to *dismiss* Parliament. The "Convention" Parliaments are so called because they were convened or assembled without the King's writ.

Four principal political decisions were :

1. Only the principal regicides should suffer death.
2. The House of Lords should be restored.
3. The Army should be disbanded.
4. The King should hold his Crown Lands and an income of £1,200,000.

Two principal religious decisions were :

1. That Puritan clergy properly instituted should keep their livings.
2. That clergy forcibly ejected by Puritan Governments should be restored.

The Cavalier Parliament spoilt this attempt at fairness by passing the Four Acts.

Another royal prerogative is that of giving or withholding assent to Acts of Parliament, without which they cannot become laws of the realm.

A third royal prerogative is that of suspending laws *or* dispensing certain persons from observing them. It is one which constitutional monarchs rarely use and which Parliaments carefully watch. It seems to be a function of kingly power which can sometimes overrule the stern administration of justice by royal clemency.

The Stewart sovereigns, holding strong convictions as to the divine right of kings, used it to thwart the power of Parliament.

Charles II. in his Declaration of Indulgence (1672), and James II. in his (1687-8), thus overruled the laws forbidding open Catholic worship and the holding of State offices by Catholics.

2. Parliament and Religion.

The many contests about religious matters were caused by the overthrow of spiritual authority by the Tudor sovereigns. They had constituted themselves "Supreme Heads" of the Church with the aid of Parliament. Hence Parliament was entitled to look upon the Established Church as a department of the State, and to interfere in its government, ceremonies, and doctrines.

Puritanism always expressed a spirit of revolt against authority, ecclesiastical or royal; and the unwisdom of many of the King's actions during the period stimulated and provoked opposition.

3. Crown and Ministers.

The House of Stewart, too, was ill-served by its ministers. The discreet Cecil was succeeded by Bacon (Viscount Verulam, 1616). To him James I. paid no heed and his weariness of the Covenanting Lords made him welcome the fascinating power of young Villiers (Duke of Buckingham). The ascendancy of this nobleman over

both James I. and Charles I. gave a convenient handle to weapons wielded against kingly power.

The stern virtues of Strafford and Laud served only to the undoing of master and servants because they entirely failed to read the temper of the age, and neither would ever stoop to compromise.

At the Restoration Charles II. had for minister the zealous Hyde, Earl of Clarendon [He had been one of those who impeached Strafford for "seeking to make the King despotic" (1640).] His name is handed down to us in the "Clarendon Code," that great instrument of repression.

The five statesmen who formed the "Cabal" played double parts. Clifford and Arlington helped to bring about the *Triple Alliance* against France and her absolute King, and two years later were in the Secret Treaty of Dover which made Charles II. forswear his alliance for a pension from Louis XIV.

The name of Ashley (Shaftesbury) was a byword for inconstancy. As a youth he had sat in the Short Parliament (1640); in the Civil War officered a troop in the King's army (1643); transferred his allegiance to Cromwell (1648) and sat in his Council of State (1655). At Cromwell's death he spoke of "His Highness of deplorable memory," and strongly urged the recall of Charles II. In that brilliant and extravagant Court, Shaftesbury was a leader; supported Charles in his Declaration of Indulgence (1672); strongly opposed it two years later; pressed the operation of the Test Act; joined the "Country Party" and discouraged the Dutch War. In Parliament he led the opposition to the marriage of the Duke of York to Mary of Modena, and worked up the panic in London of a Papist rising and an Irish invasion. He supported any proposed persecution of Catholics and lent himself to every secret plot against the accession of James II. A flight to Holland (1683) put an end to his restless plotting, and there he died.

Lauderdale, the Scottish member of the Cabal, and chief minister in the Scottish Parliament, helped it to become more strictly Episcopalian than even the bishops.

The single successor of this band of statesmen, the Earl of Danby, was the first to introduce direct bribery of members in order to overcome parliamentary opposition, an evil custom which lasted a hundred years. At one and the same moment Danby was threatening France with war (a popular measure), and writing to Louis XIV. for an addition to the pension he was paying to Charles II. Danby lived to be a responsible member of the group of men who invited William of Orange to come to rule England (1688).

On the other hand, there had been, among the opponents of royal power, men of high character and honour. Hampden, who with the strictness of a Puritan had "the manners of an accomplished courtier"; Pym, the best type of rebel, distinguished for his political idealism (claiming for Parliament the position of "the soul of the body politic"), and for his temperate advocacy of revolutionary measures. There was Sir Henry Vane, in his impetuous youth one of the high-hearted emigrants who left England in 1630-31. As leader of the Independents in Parliament he was the messenger from Pym to the Scots Covenanters, and to him the King appealed in his last stroke for peace (1648). After the death of the King, Vane strove to preserve the Parliament against the tyranny of Cromwell, telling him that his act was "against all right and honour." He refused to sit in Cromwell's Council of State (1653) and did his best for the incompetent Richard (1658). In the irony of fate this honest and courageous opponent was not included in the amnesty of Charles II., but was executed for treason.

4. Foreign Affairs during the Commonwealth and the later Stuarts.

Cromwell's high-handed methods, which were so disastrous in home affairs, served well in his foreign policy. The Peace of Westphalia (1648), which ended the Thirty Years' War, had left France the leading power in Europe, the German States independent of Austria, and the Netherlands free from Spain. Cromwell, believing Spain to be the most dangerous foe, as "the great under-proper

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of the Romish Babylon," sent a fleet to the West Indies to raid her possessions. The capture of Jamaica was the immediate result ; and later the gain of Dunkirk in return for military aid to France. He then interposed between France and her Protestant subjects in Piedmont, where the Duke of Savoy had crushed a religious revolt with a cruel massacre. To this period belong the last victories of the great Admiral Blake.

The war with the Dutch, soon after the Restoration (1665-7), which England undertook as before, for trade (economic) reasons, suited Louis XIV. very well. He meant to subdue both Holland and England, hence the more they exhausted themselves beforehand, the better for his purpose.

The marriage of Charles II. with the Princess Catherine of Braganza was another (perhaps unconscious) blow at Spain. For Portugal, under the Braganza royal house, meant to be independent, and a princess married to an English King was a help. Again, when Dunkirk (on the frontier of the Spanish Netherlands) was sold to France, that power had a garrison very handy for thwarting Spanish control.

Parliament disapproved of the King's friendship with Louis XIV., and through their strong feeling was formed the Triple Alliance (1668). The "Secret Treaty" of Dover was a counterblast to this.

With the Second Dutch War (1672-3) there began the ill-omened contest of the Stewart House with that of Orange, but later Charles II. (in the tangle of interests) permitted his niece Mary to wed the Stadtholder, William.

James II. was openly and more closely allied with Louis XIV. than his brother had been. Believing as he did in the divine right of kings, he tried at once to imitate the absolute methods of the French King. In his endeavour to restore the Catholic Faith in his realm he was acting conscientiously, though to try to do so was contrary to the statutes under which the Parliament accepted him as King. These to him, with his "divine right" theory, meant very little beyond encroachments on kingly power.

USEFUL BOOKS OF REFERENCE ARE AMONG THE
FOLLOWING :

Macaulay's *Essay on Clarendon's History of the Great Rebellion*.

Green's *Short History of the English People*, chaps. viii., ix.

Gardiner's *Students' History*, vol. ii. '

EPISODES SUITABLE FOR CLASS ACTING :

1. The Morris Dance in Milton's *Comus*, interrupted by the Lady's appearance.

2. Charles I. and Pym at Whitehall (Browning's *Strafford*, Act iv. sc. 3).

3. Charles I. seeking to arrest the Five Members (Green's *Short History*, ch. viii. sect. vi.).

4. Archbishop Plunket before the Chief Justice, "God Almighty bless your Lordship" (C.T.S. pamphlet, 2d).

5. Monmouth at Taunton (Besant's *For Faith and Freedom*).

6. Princess Anne and her husband leaving James II. to dine with William of Orange.

NOTES FOR LESSONS ON THE PERIOD
1688-1714

1. The "Glorious" Revolution.

The accession of William III. and Mary can be well illustrated by means of a "Living Tree of Genealogy" as suggested in Teacher's Book III. Also different members of the class might undertake to give reasons why Mary should be Queen and why William should (or should not) be King, or Regent.

Whatever claims they had were made effective only by the decision of Parliament. Green says abruptly, "An English monarch is now as much the creature of an Act of Parliament as the pettiest tax-gatherer in his realm."¹

¹ *Short Hist of the English People*, chap. ix. sect. viii.

Put more courteously, he is now a "Constitutional" monarch, *i.e.* a sovereign reigning according to an accepted system of privileges and limitations.

Both parties in the State were satisfied with the arrangement; the Whigs because the King would hold his position only through Parliament, the Tories because the hereditary claim of Mary was recognized in making her Queen Regnant (not Queen Consort) with him.

William, son of William the Stadtholder (pleasing title!) of the United Provinces of the Netherlands, the Dutch Republic, had served a hard apprenticeship to war, and had known many difficulties with the Peace party in his country. In 1685 he was the recognized leader of the Netherlands and their allies against the growing power of France under Louis XIV. He was also one of the opponents of James II. since the English kings had been bribed by Louis to give no support to the powers he meant to crush. An absurd proposal was made at first, that William should be appointed Regent and James II. permitted to retain his title. Though a "Parliamentary King" he bore the restraints this imposed on his power with a very ill grace, and gladly led armies abroad rather than meet ministers at home.

2. The War of the Spanish Succession.

To add to the confusion of three claimants to the Spanish throne when the aged King should die, William III., Holland, and France made a Partition Treaty by which they proposed to share the Spanish dominions between the three claimants. Before it could take effect one of the claimants died. Then a Second Partition Treaty was made, allotting nearly all the realm to the Austrian claimant and the rest to the French claimant, grandson of Louis XIV.

The King of Spain in his will left the whole to this last-named, Philip of Anjou, and, of course, Louis XIV. acted upon it at once and proclaimed Philip King (1701). Then was formed the Grand Alliance of Austria, England, and Holland to dispute the enormously increased power of France. They announced that the Austrian Archduke

Charles was Charles III. of Spain. France retorted by recognizing James Edward (son of James II.) as King of England.

Other princes joined the Grand Alliance, notably the Elector Frederick of Brandenburg. He bargained that in return he should be acknowledged King of Prussia ; and thus the Mark of Brandenburg became the kingdom of Prussia, soon to become one of the most powerful states of Europe. Great armies were prepared, and in 1702 England was fully embarked on the war of the Spanish Succession ; the King had a double interest, that of his established leadership against France, and now that of opposing the recognition of James Edward Stewart, as King of England. Parliament and people (so far as these latter had any say) supported the war on the score of the "Stewart peril." A few weeks after the death of William III. Marlborough, again in power, went to Holland at the head of a great army. The war was fought in so many places and with so many different armies, that it lasted with varying fortunes till 1713, when France was quite worn out. Then it was ended by the *Treaty of Utrecht*.

This treaty was intended to guard against the danger (dreaded by the other European powers) of France and Spain being united under one crown ; and also the danger, especially dreaded by England, of France supporting the Stewart exile. The three chief clauses were :

1. That Philip of Anjou should be King of Spain, but no King of Spain might also be King of France.
2. That Louis XIV. should not assist James Edward and should recognize the Settlement of the Succession.
3. That Great Britain should have the disputed Rupert's Land (Hudson's Bay territory), Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland, with trading rights to the West Indies. These included monopoly in slave traffic. Gibraltar was also to belong to Great Britain.

3. Colonial History.

In 1665 the Dutch Settlements which had separated the

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two groups of English colonists since 1626 were conquered and the chief town, New Amsterdam, became New York, in honour of Charles's brother James. Hence, when William III. and Mary began their reign, the whole American coast from Maine to South Carolina was under the British flag.

In 1692-7, during the war with France, the British colonists found themselves in opposition to their French neighbours across the St. Lawrence, in New France, the Canada to be. Some of the Indian tribes joined the French, some the British. To our colonists this was known as "King William's War," and they fought for the Protestant Succession. In the *Treaty of Ryswick*, which ended the war (1697), it was arranged that the combatants should restore any territory gained.

In 1702-13, when the war of the Spanish Succession was being fought in Europe, again the colonial kinsmen of the fighters shared in it. To the British this was "Queen Anne's War," ended by the *Treaty of Utrecht*.

NOTES FOR LESSONS ON THE PERIOD 1714-1760

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

Britain	France.	Spain.	Empire.	Prussia.	Russia.
George I. 1714	Louis XV. 1715.	Philip V. 1701.	Charles VI. 1711.	Frederick William I 1713.	Peter the Great, 1689.
George II. 1727			Maria Theresa, 1740.	Frederick the Great, 1740.	Catherine I 1725.
		Ferdinand VI. 1746.	Charles VII. 1742. Francis I. 1745.		Anna 1730. Ivan VI. 1740 Elizabeth, 1741.

1. The Jacobites.

The death of Louis XIV. (1715) left the throne to his great-grandson, aged five, with the Duke of Orleans as Regent. The article in the *Treaty of Utrecht*, as to France not countenancing James Edward Stewart, was so well observed that he was asked to leave France. He resided

in Rome till his death ; and in St. Peter's are the memorials to him, his two sons, Charles Edward and Henry the Cardinal, opposite the tomb of his wife, Marie Sobiesky. For twenty-five years there was peace between Great Britain and France, then it was broken by (1) the dispute as to the Austrian Succession, and (2) the open patronage of the young King Louis XV., bestowed upon Charles Edward.

The rising in 1715 took place directly after the death of Louis XIV. The Earl of Mar rallied the Highlanders, always loyal to the Stewarts, to the standard of "James III.," and under the leadership of some Scottish lords marched south. They were joined by the Jacobite gentlemen of the North of England, but surrendered at Preston to the Government forces, while at Sheriffmuir the inglorious contest under Mar and the Duke of Argyle took place. When the tardy James Edward landed, the affrays were over, and he quickly returned to France and thence to Rome.

In 1745 the rising was a more carefully organized and extended one. Other causes than faithful loyalty to the fallen house contributed. Among them were :

- (1) Political discontent in England with the Hanover-Walpole order ;
- (2) Political discontent in Scotland with the absorption of Scotland by England ;
- (3) Disappointment of Lowland traders with economic results of the Union.

There was always a lurking sympathy with the Stewarts among Tories ; notably in some of the great houses and the University of Oxford. Dinner toasts were slyly given by the clinking of glasses above the carafe, "To the King !" subtly implying "over the water." With the English armies engaged in the European War, with the King of France again protecting the Stewart exile, and with the (supposed) readiness of English sympathizers to take a hand, the Jacobite Chiefs of the Highland clans prepared the ground. Prince Charles Edward, a dashing and resolute personality, suddenly appeared on the west coast of Scotland, put himself at the head of the Highlanders.

and drove, in the wild "Canter of Colt Brigg," right on to the gates of Edinburgh. The city saw him ensconced in Holyrood Palace holding his Court, and then make a surprise sally on the Government camp at Preston Pans and scatter it.

Then there began the march to London; everywhere, after the northern districts were passed, disappointment succeeded expectation. The English Jacobites were not prepared to take risks; Derby reached, farther advance was impossible. Once back in Scotland at Glasgow, there came a moment's rally of hope; but after defeating the English troops at Falkirk, Charles retired to the Highlands. At Culloden the insurgents were faced with the troops of the Duke of Cumberland, whose vengeance on the fallen made his name abhorred. "Bonnie Prince Charlie," the inspirer of song and the hero of loyal hearts, left a memory of gallant endeavour, but himself never again saw Scotland or retrieved its honour.

2. The War of the Austrian Succession.

Great Britain shared in this as a result of her standing quarrel with Spain about trading in the southern seas. When the Emperor Charles of Austria died in 1740, he left his realm to his daughter Maria Theresa. He had won the consent of the great powers to his *Pragmatic Sanction* which overruled the Salic law against women sovereigns. Her rival claimant (Elector of Bavaria) was supported by the ambitious Frederick the Great of Prussia, who himself had seized her province of Silesia. France declared herself on the side of Bavaria, so did Spain. Hanover was for Austria, and its Elector was King of England; thus our country was involved. The war, in which George II. fought in person at Dettingen, resulted in the victory of Great Britain and Austria over France (1743). This, of course, strengthened the mischievous intention of Louis XV. in upholding Prince Charles Edward; and, indeed, an invasion of England was planned for 1744, but came to nothing. In 1748 peace was made. During the war the actual cause of it was lost sight of; Bavaria had given up the contest; Frederick of Prussia

withdrew ; and France and Great Britain were fighting in the Netherlands, where at Fontenoy the Duke of Cumberland's army was defeated by Marshal Saxe. Fresh from his defeat Cumberland won at Culloden his disgraceful title of "Butcher."

3. The Seven Years' War.

This began in 1756 between the Empress Maria Theresa and Frederick the Great of Prussia ; he determined to keep his booty, she as resolute to win it back—Silesia the "brightest jewel" in her crown. By this time Frederick had lost the help of France, through his boorish conduct and his rude language about Louis XV. But (in the whirligig of time) Great Britain was on his side, and from that time the alliance between Prussia (Germany) and our country was undisturbed until the Great War of 1914-18. There was, however, a new enemy of Frederick, his neighbouring country Russia.

4. The Rise of Russia.

The position of Russia as a European power dates from the reign of Peter the Great (1689-1725), an imaginative and original-minded man. He was resolved to make his country great and to bring her into touch with civilized Europe. He studied shipbuilding in Holland and in England, working in 'prentice clothes in the docks. His realm he left in charge of a Scotsman, one of the principal foreigners he had invited to settle in Russia. The building of the fine city of St. Petersburg commemorated his victory over Sweden and annexation of much territory. During the period 1725-60 Russia was ruled by three great queens, Catherine, Anna, and Elizabeth. Under the last-named, in 1759 Russia was victorious over Frederick the Great at the battles of Kay and Kunersdorf. It was a suitable retribution upon him for his dealings with Silesia that Russia joined with France in planning the "partitioning" of Prussia. This did not take effect through his immense military skill, for which, ever since, the rulers of that country had been famous until its fall in 1918.

Russia at first helped to oppose Napoleon in Europe,

but afterwards joined him. Then began the constant quarrel between Russia and Turkey which was to be known as the "Eastern Question." The Berlin Decrees led to a breach between Russia and Napoleon and his disastrous invasion of the country was the outcome (1812).

5. The National Debt and the Bank of England.

In these days of National War Bonds and Savings Certificates there is no difficulty in getting children to understand something of the finance of the country, or to be interested in it. Until 1664 there was no National Debt. Earlier kings extracted loans from their subjects through the "goldsmiths" or bullion merchants, and more than once repudiated the debts. In 1672 Charles II. followed this bad example. Twenty years later a Scotsman, William Paterson, studied the money question and found that the continental countries had established State Banks. He was consulted by Montague, the Whig Chancellor of the Exchequer (1694), and it was decided to form a company and place in their hands the State loans and behind them the Government (*i.e.* the national) credit. Thus arose the Bank of England, which undertook to pay interest on the loans already held and on all future ones.¹

The introductory paragraphs in the section "Stocks and Shares" in any good arithmetic book would form handy material for a lesson on investment generally and "Government" stock.² Wars have been the great occasions for borrowing money. In 1702, at the close of William III.'s reign, the National Debt was sixteen million pounds. Under Queen Anne (those Marlborough campaigns!) it became fifty-four millions; and at the close of George II.'s reign it was one hundred and twenty millions.

6. The South Sea Bubble.

This unfortunate speculation was bound to fail. First

¹ Addison wrote a pretty sketch of the Bank of England in his *Spectator Essays*, 1711, No. 111 in Arnold's ed

² See Pendlebury's *Arithmetic*.

because there was not wide enough scope for trade to employ all the money that people hastened to invest ; and next, because in the general panic which seized the investors they claimed their money back all together. Walpole with great skill got some of the money paid back, and the Government took over the stock that the South Sea Company received from it, so that by degrees public credit was restored.

7. Taxes : Direct and Indirect.

So much has been said in this part of our history about taxes that a lesson might profitably be given on the subject and the class invited to supply illustrations, or to find out the occasions of some old taxes mentioned here.

The oldest *Direct* taxes were the *Danegeld* and the *Ship-geld* ; they were both made upon holders of land.

The first *Income Tax* may be said to be that on "Movables" in 1184 for the ransom of Richard I.

A *Poll Tax*, usually levied on adult males, was often imposed. The one under Richard II. which was so resented was not a novelty, but times were hard and the people discontented. What was really a *Poll Tax*, though levied on populations of towns, was imposed by Charles I., by the Government at the Restoration, and in 1689 by William III.'s ministers.

A *Hearth Tax* (evidently considered a sort of luxury tax) was levied in 1663 and had the effect of checking the increase of chimneys (and therefore of smoke) in London.

A *Window Tax*, which was imposed in 1696, remained in force until 1851 ; the blocked-up windows which it occasioned almost set a fashion in street architecture, remains of which may still be seen in old parts of our towns.

Indirect Taxes are also very ancient ; they are duties on certain imported (or exported) goods. Before the Conquest (1066) the King's officers claimed one cask of wine in every ten, on landing. Later the most profitable taxes were those on wool (exported) and skins, and the Plantagenet Kings got most of their income from it ; hence their struggles with their Parliaments who wished to control taxes.

BOOK V.—TEACHER'S

James I. issued a complete Book of Rates of the "customs" he meant to charge, and perpetually tried to impose them in spite of the Parliament's protests. The Petition of Right (1628) and the Bill of Rights (1689) declared them all illegal unless with consent of Parliament. The grant of the "customs" made to William III. and Mary was cautiously for four years only instead of for life.

After wool, corn had been a principal article for taxing when exported. [Until 1689 none was imported.] That year began the eventful history of the Corn Laws, for the tax on exported corn was removed.

The *Excise* duties were taxes on goods produced at home, but similar in kind to some of those imported; beer and spirits, for instance. Hence the places where they were made had to be open to Government inspectors. The "stills" where in later days gin and whisky were distilled had to be licensed or they were "illicit" and subject to prosecution. Walpole's plan was to extend the excise and place under it several of the imported goods in which smuggling was rife. They would thus be landed and warehoused without tax, but taxed on being removed for sale.

USEFUL BOOKS OF REFERENCE ARE AMONG THE FOLLOWING:

Addison's *Essays* (Arnold's edition):

"The Royal Exchange," No. 69.

"Reign of Queen Anne," No. 101.

"Sir Roger de Coverley," Nos. 106-115, etc.

Macaulay's *Essay on Letters of Horace Walpole*.

EPISODES SUITABLE FOR CLASS ACTING:

1. The Landing of Prince Charles Edward.
2. A Jacobite dinner-party giving a "toast."
3. Wolfe's interview with Pitt before sailing for Canada.
4. Wolfe and Montcalm wounded. "They run! They run!" (Green's *Short History*, ch. x. sect. i.).

NOTES FOR LESSONS ON THE PERIOD 1756-1815

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

Britain. George III. 1760.	France. Louis XVI. 1774.	Spain. Charles III. 1759.	Empire. Francis I. 1745.	Prussia. Frederick the Great, 1740	Russia. Peter III. 1762 Catherine II 1762.
Regency, 1810.	Louis XVII. 1794. (Reign of Terror.)	Charles IV. 1788.	Joseph II. 1765. Leopold II. 1790.	Friederick William II. 1786. Frederick William III. 1797.	Paul I. 1796 Alexander I 1801.

1. Revolutionary France. Principal changes.

National Assembly, 1789. Consulate, 1799
National Convention, 1792. Emperor Napoleon I. 1804.
Directory, 1795.

2. The Wars with Napoleon.

The First Coalition of European Powers, 1792-7.
The Second Coalition of European Powers, 1799-1801.
The Third Coalition of European Powers, 1805.
The Berlin Decrees, 1806.
The Peninsular War, 1807-14.
Battle of Waterloo, 1815.

3. India.

In giving an introductory lesson on India, plentiful use should be made of a clear, uncrowded map, and the positions of the (a) British, (b) French fort-factories mastered. The French trading centres were Government protected; hence the scope for ambitious military governors. The English were those of a chartered company with (at first) only their own armed men, and later a handful of soldiers. The thread of events and principal dates of the contest between France and Britain in India is as follows:

- 1746-8. Part of the Franco-British share in the War of the Austrian Succession.
1748-54. Unfriendly rivalry between the two Companies lasted in spite of the Peace of Aachen.

1748. Dupleix, the French general, supported Chunda Sahib ; the British, Nadir, son of the late ruler, in their claims to the throne of the Deccan province.

Result : Chunda Sahib, ruler of Carnatic (South Deccan) ; a Nizam appointed by Dupleix sovereign over the rest.

1756. Clive entered upon a well-established condition of unrest in which native princes took sides with French or English in disputes and were supported, or opposed, in their own quarrels, by the English or the French

1765. Clive became both military and civil governor ; and the whole of North-east India was under British control.

[Much can be made if time permits of the picturesque element in the story of India. Also of the tragic episodes which mark it ; the dark personalities of Surajah Dowling, Meir Jaffir ; and later Nuncomar, the Rajah of Benares, and the Begums of Oudh.]

- 1774-85. Warren Hastings succeeded Clive as Governor-General. Then began the second phase of British India. By Lord North's *Regulating Act* the Home Government shared responsibility with the East India Company. The Governor was appointed by the British ministry, the Company elected a Council. This did not work well. Warren Hastings suited his rule to evil conditions ; bribed and received bribes ; met cruelty with cruelty, and was recalled to stand his trial before the House of Lords.

1786. Lord Cornwallis and a Board of Control followed Hastings, and a method was founded of governing which served well. The Governor-Generals were the real rulers, but the native princes retained the show of power. Each of the many risings that were attempted ended in extended territory for British and another loyal native ruler holding it under them. Besides these there

were three great wars: the *Ghurka* (1813), which falls within the present period, and two later ones, the *Pindari* (1818) and the *Mahratta*. To absorb these hereditary fighters a large native army under British officers was formed, which had its own peril forty years later in the Great Mutiny.

4. The American Colonies.

Similarly here the use of clear maps showing the various European settlements should be frequent, and the positions of the British, with their neighbours, mastered. Some idea of the vast extent of the American Continent should be given, and of its original inhabitants known as "Indians." The progress of colonial history runs thus:

- 1754-5. Duquesne, the French military governor, built a line of forts between the Great Lakes. In connection with Fort Duquesne, on the borders of Virginia, the rise of the patriot George Washington began.
- 1756. Montcalm seized Fort William Henry and Fort Oswego, two British outposts (beginning of Seven Years' War).
- 1759. Wolfe was sent by Pitt to carry through the storming of Quebec, the "Key of Canada." Amongst the *dicta* of the period note Wolfe's remark on Gray's *Elegy*: "I would rather be the author of that poem than take Quebec."

A contrast should be noted in the parallel stories of India and America. The importance of the struggle in America was fully understood by the statesmen at home. In the case of India official help was long in being sent, and the glory of the early conquests belongs to the men of the East India Company.

5. The Independence of the American Colonies.

Vivid interest may be roused in the politics of this by enlisting the class into "Home" and "Colonial" sets, and setting on foot a debate.

" Home " points :

1. The colonists had depended on British help against the French.
2. The cost of the troops and ships should have contributions from the colonists.
3. Voluntary contributions could not be depended upon ; and as a matter of dignity the Mother Country should decide how much money and how it should be raised.
4. Colonies are always to be understood as subordinate, not equal, members.
5. The British Acts of Parliament (Navigation, Imports, Exports) were *first* in the interests of home trade, showing the secondary importance of the colonies.
6. Britain was not going to alter all the usual ways of dealing with grievances.

" Colonial " points :

1. Colonists, being British, were entitled to the same liberties as those at home.
2. The first of these is " No Taxation without Representation."
3. Since distance prevented representation in Parliament, *therefore* taxes could be imposed only by their colonial assemblies.
4. That the Navigation and Trading Acts were very injurious to colonial prosperity.
5. That " smuggling " was inevitable under them, and the Government's ways of checking it were arbitrary and against the liberty of the subject.

It will be interesting to note that some of the class will certainly suggest some compromise, or advance some means of conciliation, and the teacher may justifiably assist this drift of opinion. The mistakes of the Government in yielding points ungraciously and in coupling with the repeal of the vexing Acts and removal of taxes (1767) an old Tudor law of treason, compelling resisters as " traitors " to be brought to England for trial, may be noted.

THE GRIP-FAST HISTORY BOOKS

Naturally the European states watched with interest this family quarrel of Britain and her colonies; then the open war (1775-8) and then the sympathetic French alliance with the "rebels" (1778). Only the obstinacy of George III. kept the war going; Lord North and the ministry saw the unwisdom of it. Short extracts from the speeches of Chatham and Burke might be quoted; and *Documents from British History*.¹

Progress of Events

1776. *The Declaration of American Independence* was made and a six years' war fought to establish it.

1778. The war had spread to Europe as part of the contest of France and Britain.

1783. *The Treaty of Versailles* ended the war. By it the independence of the United States of America was recognized, with enormous territories between the Mississippi and the Alleghany Mountains.

A Convention was held under George Washington and a Constitution was drawn up. Thus began the later career of the British American colonies, which in our own time have developed into one of the most important countries of the world.

6. The French Revolution.

The successful stand made by the colonists against arbitrary rule was one of the influences which led Frenchmen to seek to reform their government. But the attempt was overruled by the more violent spirits, and the interest and tolerance with which Britain at first watched the struggle were changed to horror and dread. Lest such terrible things should occur under their rule, the King's ministers put down every attempt at ventilating grievances and were as repressive of popular feeling as any Stewart king had ever been. There were, however, many secret revolutionary societies in the country amid widespread discontent. It might have grown to something serious

¹ Keatinge and Frazer (Black).

but that in the progress of the Revolution in France there stood forth a great military genius, Napoleon Buonaparte. When the provocative appeal of the French Revolutionary Government to "all the peoples of Europe to rise against their rulers" had led the European sovereigns to league themselves together against France, Napoleon it was who, with his armies fought them all, and beat them down.

7. The Napoleonic Wars.

Great Britain may be said to have fought France by three chief wars:

- (1) The War at Sea, 1797-1807.
- (2) The Economic War, 1807 (*Orders in Council v. Berlin Decrees*).
- (3) The Peninsular War, 1808-14.

With the War at Sea are connected the names of our naval heroes, Jervis, Duncan, and Nelson. [The scenes of these victories should be discussed with the clear, open map.]

The Economic War was most effective. Napoleon's *Berlin Decrees* (i) forbade British trading ships to enter any continental port; (ii) declared British coasts to be in a state of blockade [*i.e.* open to enemy attack]; (iii) confiscated British property in continental countries. The retort was by the *Orders in Council* [*i.e.* not issued by Act of Parliament, but by the Privy Council] which (i) prohibited trade with any of the ports of the Berlin Decree; (ii) declared them to be in a state of blockade. In the scarcity that resulted from this stoppage of trade the continental countries suffered even more than Great Britain, and especially those which were not at war. This made them all impatient of the state of things and roused them to take some active steps to end it.

In 1808 Great Britain began active fighting on land by sending troops under Sir Arthur Wellesley into Portugal. By 1814, after weary waiting, ill-supplied with men, food, and arms, this great general had become commander of the allied armies and just defeated Napoleon at Toulouse. The Emperor abdicated and for a hundred days lived on

the island of Elba. Then he returned, was welcomed with acclaim by the troops, and set out again to conquer Britain. The end came at Waterloo in Belgium, and British and Prussian armies, under Wellington and Blücher, made escape impossible. On the lonely island of St. Helena the broken conqueror of Europe lived for six years a British prisoner of war.

The *Times*, in its reprints at the British Empire Exhibition, 1924, included the number in which appeared Wellington's despatch after Waterloo.

SOME USEFUL BOOKS OF REFERENCE ARE AMONG :

- Macaulay's *Essay on Warren Hastings*.
- McCarthy's *The Four Georges and William IV*.
- Trevelyan's *American Revolution*.
- Green's *Short History of the English People*, chap. x.
- Rosebery's *Pitt*.
- Burke's *Letters and Speeches*.

EPISODES SUITABLE FOR CLASS ACTING :

1. *Colonial History*. Scenes from :

<i>Miles Standish</i> <i>Hiawatha</i> <i>Evangeline</i>	}	See Nelson's <i>Highroads of Empire History</i> , Book VIII., for costumes and dramatic touches.
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2. One or two characters representing each of the settlements given in Pupil's Book V.
3. Lord North before George III. when the colonies refused to pay any taxes.
4. Pitt (or Burke) speaking in support of the colonies :
 - "You cannot conquer America. . . ."
 - "You will *force* them? Has seven years' struggle yet been able to force them?"
5. Any Scout or Guide members of the class should explain the "lacing" of the Union Jack.

NOTES FOR LESSONS ON THE PERIOD 1820–1901

CONTEMPORARY RULERS

Britain. George IV. 1820.	France. Charles X. 1824	Spain. Christina, 1833	Prussia. Frederick William IV. 1840	Austria. Ferdinand I. 1835.	Russia. Nicholas I. 1835.
William IV. 1830 Victoria, 1837.	Louis Philippe, 1830 <i>Republic</i> , 1848 Napoleon III. 1852.	Isabel, 1843. Amadeo, 1869	William I 1861. <i>German Emperor</i> , 1871 William II. 1888	Francis Joseph, 1848	Alexander II. 1855. Alexander III 1881. Nicholas II. 1896.
	<i>Republic</i> , 1871.	Alfonso XII. 1875			

1. Catholic Emancipation.

It was due to Daniel O'Connell the Irishman that at last Parliament was moved to grant freedom to Catholics to practise their religion (1829). The King (George IV.) yielded ungraciously, though his prejudice was not so deeply rooted as that of his grandfather. In his youth he had married a Catholic lady and, though compelled to disown her and marry a German princess, her influence upon him had been for good. The old Duke of Wellington, who had quite worn out his military popularity, opposed it as he had opposed most reforms, but gave in, "fearing the worst." The Earl of Arundel, heir to the Duke of Norfolk, was the first Catholic to sit in Parliament. The Oath of Allegiance replaced the Oath of Supremacy, and thus the old Tudor usurpation of spiritual headship was removed. But the long years of repression, of social isolation and suspicion, made it a very slow and difficult work for Catholic subjects to take their place in the national life. The Roman Church was tolerated, but existed shorn of all the external dignity that rightly belongs to her. In 1850 that great Pope, Pius IX., reconstituted the Catholic hierarchy in England; and Cardinal Wiseman, and after him, Cardinal Manning, ruled the Church in Great Britain so wisely that the old hatred and prejudice began to disappear.

2. Reforms.

Some of the measures of political (*i.e.* Parliamentary) reform can be made intelligible and interesting by means of illustrations of the Houses of Parliament ; the Speaker, the Commons in Session, the mace, etc. The class might choose "constituencies" and parties, and be ranged in the positions shown ; elect leaders and, after due preparation, debate some subject, as "Summer Time," the "Raising of the School Age," etc.

The Local Government elections and functions may be even more easily represented, and the value of public social service shown, in such matters as lighting, paving, drainage, provision of parks, recreation grounds, and libraries, and especially those of the actual place where the young learners live.

3. Travel and Communication.

The contrast between the ease and rapidity of these in modern days compared with even a century ago, can be shown by giving some details of the old coaching days. London to Liverpool, 4 days ; to Exeter, 4 days ; to Edinburgh, 6 days ; the perils of the way and the frequent notice, "There were no letters yesterday from the West, the Mail being held up between Crewkerne and Sherborne by footpads." The victory of Waterloo and the death of King George III. were not known in the remote parts of the northern counties until six weeks after the events. Wellington's despatches had taken two days and nights to reach the Foreign Office in London, though sent by relays of messengers and special boats. Compare this with the telegraphic and wireless messages from the Front to the War Office during 1914-18.

4. Sovereigns and Statesmen.

Many details that read coldly in print can be made to live by acting short scenes of great episodes : Pitt before George III. (Catholic Emancipation) ; Lord North before George III. (American Colonies) ; Sir Robert Peel and the Duke of Wellington with George IV. ; Lord Melbourne

BOOK V.—TEACHER'S

and Princess Victoria; Lord Beaconsfield and Queen Victoria (Empress of India); etc.

5. The Franchise.

The younger generation cannot fail to be interested in the vote, their schools being the polling stations, and thus their studies are interrupted during an election.

The Five Points of the Chartist demand were: (i) universal suffrage, (ii) vote by ballot; (iii) annual Parliaments; (iv) no property qualification for M.P.'s; (v) payment of members.

With regard to

- (i) Disraeli's Second Reform Act, 1867, gave the franchise to well-to-do artisans. Gladstone's Third Reform Act, 1884, extended it to villagers, lodgers, and smaller ratepayers.

[The People's Representation Act, 1918, gave the vote to women also.]

- (ii) The Ballot Act, 1872, provided this. [Methods of voting can be well illustrated in a class: Show of hands; "Ayes" and "Noes"; Lobbies; Ballot.]
- (iii) No one desires this on account of the serious interruption to ordinary work.
- (iv) "Any one eligible to vote is eligible to be voted for" and to sit.
- (v) [This was adopted in 1911.]

In a democratic (Gk. *demos*, people) country the best way to get good government is to have as many people as possible intelligently interested in it. Thus may be established "Government of the People, by the People, for the People."

6. The Wars of the Century.

These were undertaken for economic reasons; that is, for the protection and preservation of commercial interests or for the acquiring of such

- (1) Great Britain joined France in opposing Russia in 1854 (Crimean War), on account of the

threatened invasion of India, a dependency of the greatest value to her.

- (2) The various wars in South Africa had the same economic motive.

The Boer occupation had been simply pastoral ; the exploitation of the goldfields brought a great increase of wealth to the country, and led to the rise of large towns. While British and Boer interests were united (as in the Zulu War, 1879), and peaceful government of the annexed territory assured, the effects of the wars were to the advantage of both. But the British attempts to "protect" and control the old Boer districts of the Transvaal and the Orange River Settlement were strongly opposed, and led to the serious wars of 1881 and 1899.

In the latter the Boer President of the Transvaal Republic, Mr. Krüger, had imposed heavy taxes on the mining industry, but refused to grant the rights of citizenship to the many non-Boer settlers who worked in it. These "Uitlanders" appealed to the heads of the British colonies, through them to the High Commissioner, and finally to the Home Government. It was expected that a "few Dutch farmers" would easily be overcome, but, instead, the British forces had three of their generals shut up in as many primitive "towns," and suffered various defeats. From 1899 to 1901 an increasing number of British soldiers were sent out until, under Lord Kitchener, peace was finally assured. The Transvaal and the Orange Free State became part of the British Empire (1902). But eight years later Great Britain magnanimously granted to the old and the new territories political independence in the *Union of South Africa*.

7. Colonial Expansion.

It is now more than ever desirable to arouse interest in the British Dominions overseas, their possibilities and value. Since the Empire Exhibition at Wembley (1924), to which over five million children went, it is not difficult to find simple devices with which to set a class investigating for themselves. Among such are :

BOOK V.—TEACHER'S

1. Tracing back the history of a British possession.
2. Finding out and recording some great name or event connected with it.
3. Discussing *why* any particular possession is valuable : trade, safety, coaling of vessels, communication, "base" (e.g. Singapore).
4. Following up any article of food to its original home.
5. Acting brief episodes in colonial history.

8. The Industrial Revolution.

The class should be helped to distinguish between *industrial* and *industrious*. All wealth is based on industry. Industry may be intelligent or dull ; when only a few people had the chance of becoming intelligent those few profited by it to secure most of the wealth.

Since machinery has "come to stay," it is better to encourage interest and pleasure in its ingenuity than to blame it for making ugly things (see Kipling's *McAndrew's Hymn*). The hardships which accompanied the change from agriculture to manufacture in Great Britain were due to the rapidity of the change and the lack of sympathy and kindness between rich and poor. In the succeeding reign (Victoria) there came about the greatest possible change (another Revolution!) in the minds of the fortunate and well-to-do, which by slow degrees removed most of the evils that had grown up since the Tudor revolt against the Church and her teaching.

The Catholic Church had always borne in mind a *Christian Society* ; hence taught the duty of acting for the *common good*. The men who became powerful after the Reformation acted for their own *individual good* ; and understood this as the possessing of material wealth. And as such men formed the Governments, the evil system was unchecked.

SOME USEFUL BOOKS OF REFERENCE ARE AMONG :

Life and Times of Cardinal Wiseman.

Warner's Landmarks in Industrial History.

Traill's Social History of Great Britain.

Thackeray's *Lectures on the Four Georges*.
 Fitchett's *Deeds that Won the Empire*.
 McCarthy's *History of Our Own Times*.
 Lord Esher and Balfour, *Letters of Queen Victoria*.

SONGS AND POEMS FOR DRAMATIC RECITATION :

1. In *The Call of the Homeland* (Scott and Wallas : Blackie) in the section "Echoes from History" there is a good selection of patriotic and commemorative poems.

2. Tennyson's *Ode on the Death of the Duke of Wellington* lends itself to extracts, to be learned and recited. (Cassell's National Library : Selections.)

3. Newbolt's *Collected Poems* : "Victoria Regina," "The King of England," "The Fighting Téméraire," "Admirals All," "The Old Superb," "The Quarter-Gunner's Yarn," are alike spirited verses.

NOTES FOR LESSONS ON THE PERIOD 1900-1924

1. The Colonies and the Mother Country.

The various kinds of colonies might be illustrated by members of the class standing in order, holding flags or scrolls, naming one of the kind represented.

- (a) Crown Colonies, not self-governing, *e.g.* St. Helena, Gibraltar.
- (b) Colonies with a Council, and a Governor appointed by Home Government, *e.g.* Falkland Islands.
- (c) Colonies with Parliament, and a Governor representing the Crown, *e.g.* Barbados, Jamaica.
- (d) Colonies with their own Governments, but a Governor-General representing the Crown, often a member of the royal family, *e.g.* Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Union of South Africa.

2. Imperial Links.

One of the Secretaries of State is the Colonial Secretary, and he is the head of the department known as the Colonial

Office. The correspondence between the Home Government and the colonies is carried on through the Colonial Office : complaints, suggestions, inquiries, etc.

In connection with this office is the important Information Bureau for Emigration (now beginning to be called *Migration*). Consult with the class which term is the better, and why). From this Bureau we can get to know all about what grows in those different parts of the British Empire, what kinds of climate, what kind of work wanted, etc. And in the great building in London, known as the Imperial Institute, may be seen samples and specimens of the colonial products.

3. India.

India is much more than a colony, it is an empire ; and our sovereign is *King* of Great Britain, etc., but *Emperor* of India. So this empire has an office and a Secretary all to itself—the India Office and the Secretary of State for India. And the King's representative in India is a *Viceroy*.

A little pageant might be got up by the class to represent the development of India settlements of traders into an empire. At first the characters might hold banners or scrolls with names of place and person ; later they might have additions of persons in native dress connected with the time, attendant on a prince.

- (a) 1600. Charter granted by Queen Elizabeth to East India Company to *trade*.
- (b) 1613. English traders settled at Surat in a factory.
- (c) 1639. Second factory opened at Madras.
- (d) 1662. Third factory established at Bombay (part of wedding dowry of Catherine of Braganza, and presented by Charles II. to East India Company).
- (e) 1669. Fourth factory set up at Fort William (Calcutta).
- (f) 1707. A few more small settlements near the greater ones.
- (g) 1755. Clive's victory at Plassey won from the Mogul the control of Bengal.

- (h) 1774. Warren Hastings got control of the Carnatic.
- (k) 1784. By Act of Parliament the East India Company governed their possessions, but a Governor appointed from Home could interfere (Lord Cornwallis).
- (l) 1805. Wellesley (afterwards Duke of Wellington) set himself to make British power supreme, but leaving the native princes as rulers under it.
- (m) 1819-48. Gradually other districts were annexed as quarrels occurred and were settled.
- (n) 1857. After the great Mutiny the Crown took over the government entirely, and the East India Company ceased to exist. Until 1925 the India Office was in the same building as that in which young Clive was interviewed at the age of seventeen, received his reward, and later his rebuke; where Warren Hastings was appointed, and where he had the painful inquiry before his trial; and lastly, where Charles Lamb sat at his desk keeping accounts and copying letters, *and* in the intervals writing his delightful essays.

4. The Colonies To-day.

The Colonial Conference summoned by King Edward in 1907 might be represented in a tableau showing the Premiers of the various dominions and (taking a little liberty with facts) the representatives of smaller colonies. Each might prepare some inquiry or complaint and state it clearly and briefly to the Secretary of State for the Colonies, who would be President.

5. Secretaries of State.

Under King James I. there were only two Secretaries of State—for Home Affairs and Foreign Affairs. During the reign of George II. a Secretary for the Colonies was appointed. When Victoria came to the throne there were appointed a Secretary for War and a Secretary for India. The Navy, curiously enough, has not a Secretary, but an official who is called "First Lord of the Admiralty." This

BOOK V.—TEACHER'S

fine-sounding title has grown out of the old dignity of Lord High Admiral, an office last held by James II. when Duke of York. He was, indeed, the "man who looked after the navy," and with his busy energetic secretary and paymaster, Samuel Pepys, the ships and the sea-going men were cared for as never before.

Now that British affairs have grown so immensely many more officials are needed. These are formed into committees, or "Boards," under the various Secretaries of State. And in the twentieth century there are several more, known as "Ministries": of Labour, of Health, of Pensions, etc.

6. The Great War.

1. *The Colonies*.—The good will between the British colonies and the Mother Country was splendidly illustrated when, on August 4, 1914, Great Britain declared war on Germany in support of Belgium and France. Immediately there poured in from Canada, Australia, New Zealand, offers of help and loyal services. Thousands of troops, trained or to be put into training at once; ships to guard the Pacific coasts; contributions in money and materials; and, in the course of a few months, shiploads of flour—all eagerly thrust into the support of the British cause. Small communities in scattered islands were behindhand only in time; in proportion to their size and means their contributions were generous and unstinted.

2. *India*.—The princes of India put their wealth and their troops at the disposal of the Emperor King, and the Indian Government were almost embarrassed with the numbers at their command. The native armies of that sunny land, the inheritors of ages of warlike traditions, suffered intensely in the swampy fields and the trenches of Flanders. Most difficult, too, it was to restrain their impatient valour, and to keep them still when they longed to meet death in striking at the foe.

3. *Ireland*.—Ireland, too, that sore spot in British national history, rose to the occasion. The leaders of the bitterly opposed parties agreed to sink their differences, to undertake the guarding of the islands with the forces they

had collected for a civil war, and thus to set free all the British regular troops. Very gallantly did the Irish regiments uphold the valorous tradition behind them. They had especially valued the permission given them by King Edward VII. (always withheld till then) to wear a spray of shamrock in uniform on St. Patrick's Day. In the bad old days "the wearin' o' the green" had been a penal offence even for civilians. Queen Alexandra maintained her kind and gracious custom of presenting the shamrock by sending out large quantities to the various Fronts where the Irish troops were engaged. The famous Tenth Division of these contained men from every county, every class and different creeds. The historic names of Dublins, Leinsters, Connaughts, Munsters, Inniskillings, and Fusiliers, won fresh glory on those gory battlefields "where Unionist and Nationalist, Catholic and Protestant lived and fought and died, side by side like brothers."¹

Sad to say, at the end of the war the old bitter differences were revived in Ireland, and the British Government tried to put down by force the angry risings. But at length wiser counsels prevailed and Ireland was given Dominion status: the South becoming the Irish Free State, the North keeping its representatives in the British Parliament. An outcome of the long-repressed national spirit is seen in the eager adoption of national rights. The towns are renamed in Erse (Gaelic); that language is compulsory in the schools; the Free State has its own postage stamps and customs duties. Only the supreme inconvenience probably prevents the institution of its own coinage.

7. India and its Problems.

The successful "self-determination" of the smaller European States when the Central Empires and the Russian Tsardom fell to pieces gave encouragement to the discontented - "Nationalists" in India. Steadily but slowly Great Britain seeks to train these ancient Eastern peoples in Western methods of self-government, and the large number of natives who have had a European education has led to

¹ Mr. John Redmond, *History of the Tenth Division*.

the posts in the Civil Service and the India Government being largely filled by Hindoo instead of British officials.

The League of Nations.

The idea of a Supreme International Court of Justice is not a new one. But only as the horror and waste of the Great War made themselves felt was it possible to begin actually to construct it. The idea is to substitute in international matters the same methods of settling differences and disputes that civilized peoples have adopted in their internal and individual quarrels. Whereas in primitive times the injured party wreaked vengeance for himself if he were strong enough, in a civilized state he may not "take the law into his own hands." He must appeal to the proper courts and officials for redress; thus justice may be hoped to be dealt out impartially and even-handedly, not in anger or resentment. Similarly, in rough and barbarous countries a dispute between individuals soon ends in a fight ("fisticuffs") or (as in all Europe till within the last fifty years) in duels with chosen weapons and formalities. England long ago gave up this method, and it is being discountenanced and laughed-out even in Southern Europe.

But international communications have been slow to reach an upright and considerate method. In disputes the motto has too often been, "Strike first and strike hard!" which, of course, served well the country with "big battalions" or immense warships. The League of Nations exists as a Court to which an aggrieved country may appeal, assured of justice being done; but, naturally, it is not yet in working order in this most difficult province.

Another part of its task, however, is even more valuable than settling quarrels; it is to prevent them. In this most useful way the League watches the conditions of labour in various countries; the movements and treatment of refugees (sometimes whole populations have to change places, through some new adjustment of frontier); the traffic in dangerous things, like opium; the treatment of slaves and of native workers in some of the little-known lands; and seeks to help and teach the peoples who, since

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the Peace, have been placed under the "Protection" or the "Mandate" of one of the Allies.

At present about fifty-six countries belong to the League; of the rest, some will not consent to join, and some are not expected to join. The headquarters is at Geneva; and like a single national government, this international organization has several departments, and each of these works by means of Committees, or Boards. One of its most useful features is the International Labour Office, which seeks to ensure "Fair and humane conditions of labour for men, women, and children, both in their own countries and in all countries to which their commercial and industrial relations extend."

EXPLORATION AND DISCOVERIES, 1701-1924

If possible a clear large map of the Pacific, with the British, French, and Dutch routes marked in different colours, should be shown (see Robertson's *Historical and Modern Atlas*. Methuen & Co.).

Though the Age of Discovery, even of the Pacific, was before our period, yet only the coast-lines of those great islands were generally explored by the Dutch mariners.

1701. Dampier, like his predecessors, turned away from Australia and sailed the Southern Seas. His wonder tales on his return to England inflamed the minds of many, and gave encouragement to the wild project known as the South Sea Bubble. They also inspired Defoe to write his *Robinson Crusoe*.

1769. Captain Cook, sent out by the Government, and carrying astronomers to observe the transit of Venus over the Sun's disc (visible at Tahiti), made many valuable discoveries; the coasts of New Zealand; Australia (then called New Holland) with the lovely Botany Bay; and then sailed on northward through the Torres Straits separating it from New Guinea.

1775. Cook's next voyage was in the frozen waters of the Antarctic Ocean, in search of a southern continent.
1776. In his third voyage, seeking the North-West Passage, he sailed over the same waters and through Behring Strait, but finding the icy wastes impassable turned southward again, and found Hawaii (Sandwich Islands), there to meet his death.
- 1872-6. Nearly a hundred years later the discovery of silver, lead, and copper ore, besides the natural fertility of the soil, transformed the Colony of South Australia into one of the richest of the Pacific Settlements. The wise and able government of Sir George Grey contributed largely to this, and later, when he was appointed to the Governorship of New Zealand, he was equally successful. His justice and sincerity won the confidence alike of settlers and natives. These last were the Maoris, a remarkable race of untutored chivalrous opponents, won to friendship, as they at last protested, "for ever, for ever, for ever."

The major explorations of the nineteenth century consisted rather in the exploring and developing of the vast interiors of lands whose coasts had long been known. In Asia, in Africa, and in America there are left now but few untrodden areas, though science has yet to overcome the evil conditions of malaria and tropical diseases which make them unfit for the white man. With the interior of Central Africa the names of Livingstone the missionary and Stanley the explorer are connected. Their biographies should be read and quoted.

As in earlier times the lure of the North-West Passage attracted hardy mariners of all nations, so in the recent years the Arctic and Antarctic Seas have led many adventurous seamen to fight the frozen perils. Most European nations, and the Americans as well, have equipped expeditions to the Poles since Franklin, in 1818, made the first great venture. He was seeking still the North-West

Passage. In the autumn of 1924 some brave explorers tried to copy the historical feat of the Northmen, twelve centuries ago, and touch the shores of the New World by that old reputed route. The Norwegian Nansen, in 1893, achieved the "Farthest North" voyage in his wonderful ship the *Fram*. A few years later it was repeated by Scott in his vessel fitly named *Discovery*. Lovers of adventure should read the journals and descriptions of these late voyagers.

Still more remarkable than explorations of the earth's surface are those that have been accomplished during the last fifty years beneath the surface, both by sea and land. In the 'seventies of the last century the ship *Challenger*, carrying a party of scientific men on board and equipped with marvellous gear, took Deep Sea soundings in the various oceans. Travelling some 80,000 miles, and dredging and sounding as they went, they found that the greatest sea-depth is between five and six miles, and that even before that is reached, not only is all life extinct, but that nothing withstands the enormous pressure of water except sharks' teeth. The rest is ground to powder, impalpably fine.

On land there have been discovered in Europe, Asia, and Africa the buried cities of past civilizations. The island of Crete (Candia) has revealed places and monuments that scholars for centuries believed to belong only to Greek myths. In Egypt there have been discovered cities and palaces and tombs of an antiquity so great that the most careless mind is impressed with the wonder of it. The beliefs, occupations, customs, dress, and appearance of monarchs and warriors and priests and ladies of ages before the sojourning of Moses in Egypt have been revealed by the excavations made. The treasures found by Dr. Flinders Petrie are especially accessible to us, being stored in our own British museums.

A replica of one of the most recent discoveries, in the form of the tomb of King Tu-tank-hamen, was built at the British Empire Exhibition, but the Egyptian, not our own, Government are the custodians of the actual monuments.

OF old sat Freedom on the heights,
The thunders breaking at her feet ,
Above her shook the starry lights,
She heard the torrents meet.

There in her place she did rejoice,
Self-gather'd in her prophet-mind ,
But fragments of her mighty voice
Came rolling on the wind.

Then stept she down thro' town and field
To mingle with the human race ,
And, part by part, to man revealed
The fullness of her face—

Grave mother of majestic works,
From her isle-altar gazing down,
Who, God-like, grasps the triple forks,
And, King-like wears the crown :

Her open eyes desire the truth.
The wisdom of a thousand years
Is in them May perpetual youth
Keep dry their light from tears ,

That her fair form may stand and shine,
Make bright our days and light our dreams,
Turning to scorn with lips divine
The falsehood of extremes !

TENNYSON